The Nation.

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The Week.

Inasmuch as President Roosevelt had declared he would veto the bill for a permanent Census Bureau unless he could frustrate its underhand assault on the merit system, his signing it on Friday must mean that he had satisfied himself that he could, in fact, thwart the spoilsmen. Indeed, it is explicitly announced in Washington that the Attorney-General has advised him that the effect of the bill will not be, though Congress intended it, to transfer the clerks in the Census Office to the classified service, thus giving them the preference for appointment to vacancies over the names on the eligible list. As these clerks in the Census Office got their places purely as spoils for Congressmen, and underwent only a farcical examination, the injustice of advancing them over those who are eligible for office through merit is too obvious to require arguing. Mr. Roosevelt said he would not consent to it, and found a way to nullify this indecent attack upon reform principles by notifying the Director of the Census to appoint only so many clerks as he would need for the permanent bureau. The rest will be discharged, and so left out of, not in, the classified service. The net result has been to leave the heathen in Congress raging. They acceded to the President's recommendation of a permanent Census Bureau only on condition of reserving some spoils perquisites for themselves. Now he cuts off the perquisites, and keeps the permanent Bureau that reformers wanted.

It is most unfortunate that, at the very time when the Republicans in the House show such signs of incompetency, the Democrats in the Senate should throw away their opportunities. If there was any question on which the Opposition in the upper branch might have been expected to make a vigorous fight, it was the ship-subsidy scheme. Yet it is on this very scheme that the Senate Democrats have displayed a weakness which is as discreditable as it is surprising. The party managers appear to have made no objection to the Republican request for an early vote on the Frye-Hanna bill, and next Monday has been set as the day. The minority have not even presented a committee report embodying the objections to the scheme, and many Democrats seem to take no interest in the matter. Mr. Clay of Georgia has made an effective speech against the measure, and some of his associates are expected to take a similar stand this week, but for the most part the Opposition in the Senate behave as though they had no comprehension of the opportunities which the folly of the Republicans throws in their way.

The adjournment of the Republican caucus over reciprocity with Cuba on Tuesday evening without action will give a fresh impulse in both countries to the movement for annexation. While warning the Republican leaders against the inevitable consequences of their non-action, we have earnestly deprecated annexation. We are opposed to colonies altogether as a part of or an adjunct to the United States. We do not regard the Cuban people as a desirable addition to this country. They differ from us in language, religion, traditions, jurisprudence, and modes of thought. Annexation implies and necessitates equal rights eventually if not immediately. Sooner or later, Cubans must have the same political privileges as Americans. Annexation means that they must have representation in Congress in proportion to their numbers, and must accordingly help to govern us in that ratio. It is incumbent on Republicans to tell what they meant by the Platt amendment, which binds Cuba to our chariot, and prevents her from making commercial arrangements with any other country, or even from borrowing money abroad, without our consent. Did that mean annexation at the time when our Congress adopted it? One thing is certain, though the opponents of reciprocity may be blind to it, that annexation is gaining adherents in both political parties.

It cannot, perhaps, be said that the Trust problem, as a whole, is greatly cleared up by the two events of Monday—the filing of the Government's petition against the Northern Securities Company, and the Supreme Court's decision against the Illinois Anti-Trust Law. The one is merely the first gun of an important legal battle; the other, a ruling on what is really a side issue in the controversy. That the Illinois law would be thrown out when it reached the highest court, as it and kindred statutes had already been thrown out in the lower Federal courts, has been, among competent authorities, the quite unanimous expectation. The fatal defect in this law, as in recent anti-Trust laws of Texas and some other States, was the attempt of its promoters to carry water on both shoulders by allowing the farmer or wage-worker to do, in his good pleasure, acts which were severely punishable in the case of merchants or manufacturers. We said in 1897, in reviewing Judge Swayne's decision at Dallas against the Texas Anti-Trust Law, that the weakness of the act in question consisted in its exemption of at least 80 per cent. of the community, thus making "class legislation" of the most glaring sort. The Texas law of 1895, like the Illinois law of 1893, provided that the penalties against agreements to control commercial prices "shall not be held to apply to live stock and agricultural products in the hands of the producer or raiser." Of this exemption, the Supreme Court now remarks that the Fourteenth Amendment to the United States Constitution absolutely forbids it. No Legislature, the court declares, can "divide those in trade into two classes, and make criminals of those in one class . . . while allowing another and favored class engaged in trade to do the same thing with impunity."

Of the Attorney-General's petition, formally opening the case of the Government against the Northern Securities, it is to be said that a high degree of legal ingenuity is displayed. The two main points on which Mr. Knox elects to present his case are as follows: First, that the Northern Securities Company, by its absorption of the Great Northern and Northern Pacific Railways, has effected a combination in restraint of trade; second, that the Securities Company, having been organized solely as the machinery of a merger, and having given no consideration for the stocks acquired, beyond its own certificates, "was not organized in good faith to purchase and pay for the stocks." Whatever may be the judgment of the courts in the second of these contentions, its adroitness must be manifest. Resting on it, the Government's lawyers may at least evade the strong contention of the defendants, that to forbid any bona-fide investment purchases by a stock-holding corporation must logically be followed by moves to forbid, under similar circumstances, such purchases by private individuals. If the Attorney-General's second point were to be sustained, he would probably answer that the Securities Company's acquisitions could not be compared with purchases by an individual who draws bank checks for what he buys; that, in fact, the acquisitions were not purchases at all, but merely a voluntary merger. We do not, of course, profess to foreshadow the dictum of the court on this highly interesting point. We shall await with great interest, however, the rejoinder of the defence. For it is clear to every one familiar with recent moves in high finance, that the whole theory of corporate combinations, as at present practised or designed, is now in question.

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The Washington report that Secretary Hay will formally remonstrate against German concessions in Shantung lacks inherent probability. Such a remonstrance is, in fact, already answered by the recent statement of the German Chancellor to the Reichstag. To pursue the matter further, unless Mr. Hay is prepared to present a fully elaborated case, would be a grave diplomatic indiscretion, equivalent to a denial of Von Bülow's veracity. The nature of such a protest as Mr. Hay made to Russia is frequently misunderstood. Such a note appeals not to a formal treaty, but to that "gentleman's agreement" for the open door in China which Mr. Hay induced the Powers to enter into, some two years ago. A protest of this kind is in the nature of a friendly remonstrance against the ill keeping of a promise, and not at all to be regarded as a legal process in the matter of a broken contract. Its effect is chiefly moral. If Mr. Hay were to raise the question of the Shantung concessions, he would, in effect, only say to Von Bülow: "You wrote me on February 19, 1900, that 'the Imperial Government has from the beginning not only asserted, but carried out to the fullest extent, in its Chinese possessions, absolute equality of treatment of all nations with regard to trade, navigation, and commerce. The Imperial Government entertains no thought of departing in the future from this principle.'" But the German Chancellor has virtually anticipated such a reminder by affirming that Germany has not departed from this principle. If Von Bülow's statement had been made in answer to a diplomatic note, Secretary Hay must have accepted the explanation; for the principle of a gentleman's agreement holds all around. He can hardly mean to repeat a reminder which, indirectly, has been made and answered already.

Gen. Hughes, testifying before the Senate Committee on the conduct of the war in the Philippines, not only declined to answer questions, on the ground that he might be criticising a superior officer, but from the first showed that he distinguished members of the Committee by their politics. If the other military witnesses to be called before the Committee should take the same attitude, and feel themselves bound to support the past acts of military commanders and of the Administration in the Philippines, the object for which the Committee is collecting evidence will be defeated. This is to obtain the facts as to the military situation and the conditions of warfare since 1898. If the War Department has not already made it plain to officers that they may testify freely and without hurt to themselves, it is time that Mr. Root should take such action at once. The questions which Senator Patterson put to Gen. Hughes may have been incited by purely partisan motives. They were none the less proper under the circumstances, and should have met with a prompt and cordial response, if only in the interest of history. The country, for instance, is entitled to know the truth about the unnecessary and inexcusable battle fought by the American troops on August 13, 1898, which resulted in the loss of a number of valuable American lives, as well as those of Spaniards and Filipinos. Manila was then hemmed in by the Filipinos, while Dewey's guns absolutely controlled the city on the waterfront. Resistance was impossible, but the Spaniards, in order to "save their faces," cooked up a sham battle with loaded cartridges, and the American military officers consented, with an eye to promotions, which were lavishly bestowed. Senator Patterson was eminently within his rights in probing into this early Philippine scandal.

The formation of a "General Education Board," as a sort of clearing-house for Southern education, marks another important step forward in the great work of building up the black and white institutions of the South. Although it is not to be limited in its activity to any one section of the country, it has primarily been called into being by the need of a general headquarters in this city for the representatives of Southern institutions, and of an information bureau for those who desire to give to the cause. As we understand it, there will be an office in this city, to which any one may apply who wishes to ascertain the facts in regard to any school or college which appeals for help. Advice will be given to all who desire it as to the places most needing assistance and development. The presence on the Board of such men as W. H. Baldwin, jr., George Foster Peabody, Dr. J. L. M. Curry, and Robert C. Ogden insures coöperation with the Peabody and Slater funds and the Southern Education Board. Indeed, the new movement is the outgrowth of the older ones, and is destined to supply a long-felt want. At present Mr. Washington of Tuskegee, Dr. Frissell of Hampton, President Bumstead of Atlanta University, and the heads of many other worthy institutions have to spend their time and substance in travelling to the North every winter to raise the funds they need. It would be a great thing if this new movement could do away with this necessity, and itself secure all the money desired. This is a kind of Trust which will appeal to every one. It is gratifying to know that the Board begins its work with one million dollars in hand, for nothing of greater moment has happened in the educational world for years than the incorporation of this group of experienced workers as a permanent "steering committee" for Northern sentiment interested in the educational advancement of the South.

The Mortgage Tax Bill has passed many vicissitudes at Albany, but seems to have reached such position and shape that it can command votes sufficient to pass it. Originally it was a bill to bring money to the State Treasury, and thus hasten the time when the State Government would have an independent income, and would be able to dispense with the general property tax. Later it was encumbered with a proposition to divide the proceeds equally between the State and the counties where the mortgages are recorded. On Friday, on the motion of Senator Stranahan, the father of the bill, it was amended so that the State receives no part of the proceeds, but the localities receive the whole. This looks like a complete inversion of the measure, but the change is immaterial so far as the taxpayers are concerned. The great merit of the bill consists not in the channel through which the proceeds of the tax pass, but in the principle of justice and equality embodied in it. The existing tax is collected from only a few holders of mortgages, and these the ones least able to pay it. All others avoid it, in one way or another. The proposed tax cannot be avoided. It will be light (only one-half of one per cent.), but it will be paid by all who ought to pay it. By lifting all doubt and uncertainty from the taxability of mortgages it is quite certain that a large amount of new capital will flow into mortgages, and that the rate of interest on that class of loans will be lowered, and the borrower thus benefited. These are the considerations of prime importance connected with the bill. Although they were not the ones which led to its introduction, they should be potent in securing its passage.

The New York Court of Appeals has rendered a decision in the Herlihy case which should make it easy hereafter to convict any police captain who is guilty of neglect of duty. In effect it says that when a police official is accused of neglect of duty, the more specifications the prosecution has to present, the better. This is the common-sense view of the matter, and it is refreshing to find that the highest judicial tribunal in the State approves common sense as good law—which does not always happen. Capt. Herlihy was charged, under a "blanket" indictment, with failure to suppress 110 disorderly houses in his precinct, but the lower court held that only one specific case could be used in a particular trial. The Court of Appeals, however, rules that the "blanket" indictment was a valid one, and consequently that a comprehensive complaint of this sort may be lodged against any derelict captain. This is a fine vindication of ex-District Attorney

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Philbin, who stoutly maintained the propriety of proving that an official had been guilty of neglect of duty by citing scores of cases, rather than depending upon a single instance. Mr. Jerome does not exaggerate the importance of this decision when he says that "it is the greatest blow to the collection of blackmail by the police which could possibly have been given, and puts in the hands of my office powers of enormous importance."

The result of the February elections in Philadelphia has been another setback to the handful of reformers who stand for civic decency and honesty. The machine candidate for City Solicitor received an alleged majority of 120,000, and every machine Councilmanic candidate was elected, with one exception. Not one of the women candidates for school directorships was chosen. The bosses hailed the outcome as a triumph of the Republican party, and of "stalwart Republicanism," and at once left town for rest and recuperation in Florida. They have certainly earned their vacation, for the city is more firmly gagged and bound than ever before, the fusion candidate for City Solicitor receiving only 34,273 votes. The usual cheating at the polls went on openly, and with the same impunity to those responsible for it as in the past. We can well imagine the criticisms to which all this would give rise if it were the report of an election in Cuba or in the Philippines. In the eyes of Governor Taft and of many Republican Senators and Congressmen, it would constitute the best of evidence that Cubans and Filipinos were utterly incapable of self-government for a period which would put the discussion of representative institutions for them so far in the future as to make it "purely speculative."

The initiative and referendum are likely to have a crucial test in the adjoining provinces of Ontario and Manitoba. In both cases it is the same matter which is brought before the voters—namely, the Manitoba Prohibition Act. This drastic measure is now part of the law of Manitoba, but the Provincial Government will not enforce it without an express mandate from the people; it is to become the law of Ontario if the voters of the province so direct Parliament. Now it does not speak very highly for the law itself that one premier will not enforce it unless the people require him to do so, while another premier will not let it come before Parliament until he is assured of popular support. The Manitoba Prohibition Act is probably neither more nor less practical than the Maine law or the Kansas law. But the question of prohibitory legislation is being so vigorously agitated in these two provinces that the appeal to the people will be made under the most favorable conditions. The experience of Ontario and Manitoba should cast new light upon the whole question of referring issues to the voters.

It is easy to read between the lines of Kitchener's dispatch announcing the capture of Methuen, and to see that this reverse has peculiarly bitter features. Methuen was apparently manœuvring for a joint attack with Grenfell against his old enemy De la Rey, was surrounded by a force not greatly superior to his own, and completely routed. Until fuller accounts are received, it will be impossible to say whether the victory is fairly chargeable to De la Rey's brilliant strategy, or whether the defeat is another Magersfontein for Methuen, for which his own negligence is primarily responsible. In any case, the military importance of the affair might easily be exaggerated. The Boers cannot keep prisoners, and the horses, guns, and other supplies are for them the really important spoils of such a victory. The blow to English prestige is severe and humiliating. The capture of a major-general, which in the present case might possibly seem a blessing in disguise, is a minor disaster, when compared with the complete rout of a British detachment with artillery by a practically equal number of Boers—and this without any palliating circumstance. Add to this the fact that the war has long been declared at an end, while the part of the Transvaal in which the defeat occurred is reckoned as "territory partially cleared," and one has the measure of Methuen's discomfiture.

Despite the Emperor's belief that German women should confine themselves entirely to "church, children, and cooking," they show the same tendency to enter industrial life which has manifested itself in other countries. Their political and social activities were recently discussed at length in the Reichstag; the Social Democrats, as usual, acting as the champions of those of the fair sex who are eager to vote. Herr Bebel declared that his party asked nothing for men which it did not ask for women, and asserted that they were quite ready to have a woman as Chancellor. Any woman, he affirmed, would do as well as some of the incumbents the office has had. A new note in the discussion was the admission by the National Liberals that the question is one with which the Reichstag must expect to deal regularly from this time on, particularly in view of the growing intensity of the struggle for existence. As usual, most of the debate bore upon the educational facilities at the disposal of German women. Count Posadowsky, Minister of the Interior, announced that many of the difficulties in the way of their studying medicine had been removed. He counted it a misfortune that the greatest opposition in such matters came from men. He added that in a country where there are a million more women than men, and where many men refuse to marry, much would have to be done to widen the present industrial opportunities for women. He warned them, however, against expecting too much on this point from the lawgivers, because of his belief that the best way of obtaining new openings is through a public recognition of the necessities of the case, and not through legislative enactments.

Italian dispatches indicate that a prompt concession by the Government has averted a general railway strike. This must be taken to mean that Signor Zanardelli hopes to reorganize his Cabinet on the basis of the old alliance with the Socialists. The problem is this: Will the concessions in wages which have been made more than atone, in the eyes of the Socialists, for the recent order putting the railways under military law? It should be remembered that the Italian railways, though owned in great part by the Government, are largely operated by private companies. The operatives, or at least the influential classes of engineers, station masters, switchmen, and guards, form part of the army reserve, and may be assigned summarily to military duty. When the long agitation of the railway men for better terms of employment and higher pay was about to culminate in a general strike, the Government called out the railway reserves and kept them at work under military orders. The censorship of Italian news has been so complete that it is impossible to say what the effect of thus boldly thwarting a general strike has been. To the men at least there was the compensation of receiving, in addition to their regular wages, the pay of soldiers, while the Government has now put itself frankly on the laborers' side by promising to shoulder most of the large increase in pay demanded by the men from the railway companies. The action is extraordinary rather for its magnitude than for the principle involved. The Zanardelli Ministry has consistently maintained a *laisser-faire* attitude towards all strikes which do not seriously menace public order and convenience; and, as in the case of the Sardinian railways, for example, it has always leaned towards the strikers. It is this which has won it the support of the Socialists. The news that the credits for the increase of railroad wages are shortly to be brought to vote follows with significant promptness the report that the Socialists will desert the Government and return to the Opposition. Zanardelli has made a great concession to his fretful allies; a few days will tell whether it is enough.

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MR. FOWLER'S BANK BILL.

The bill amendatory of the National Bank Act, prepared by Chairman Fowler and agreed to by the House Committee on Banking and Currency, embraces four features of great importance: (1) the gradual retirement of the greenbacks; (2) a simultaneous issue of banknotes based upon the general assets of banks plus a common guarantee fund equal to 5 per cent. of outstanding circulation; (3) permission to establish branch banks; (4) the interchangeability of silver dollars and gold dollars at the Treasury. All of these are desirable reforms, and all of them will be effected in time. The main question to be considered now is whether the methods proposed are the ones most conducive to the ends sought for, and whether public opinion is in a mood to accept them. Of course Congressmen will not vote for any measure which their constituents do not favor. Hence the prime consideration in all such enterprises is the preparedness of the public mind to accept the proposed changes. On the other hand, the true way to prepare the public mind for any reform is to bring it up for discussion in legislative halls, on the hustings, and in the press.

The reason why the greenbacks should be retired is that their existence is a menace to the stability of the currency, and consequently to the stability of business. Much has been done by the act of March 14, 1900, to put the legal-tender notes beyond the reach of accidents such as befell us in 1893-1896, yet the fact remains that it depends upon the political majority at any time to decide whether the greenbacks shall be redeemed or not. It depends upon the votes of all sorts of people to decide whether the amount of them shall be greater or less than now, or shall remain stationary. These are good reasons for the gradual retirement of the legal-tender notes, but we do not look for a beginning of that process until the lapse of some considerable time, after the passions of the fiat-money and silver controversies shall have been allayed by other issues. When that time comes—when the people shall be prepared to take an impartial view of the greenback currency—they will probably perceive that it is a debt of the United States, and that it ought to be paid and cancelled like any other past-due obligation. When they reach this remarkable conclusion, they will be prepared to pay off the legal-tender notes directly by applying to that purpose a portion of the surplus revenue. We do not believe that they will favor any roundabout measure for accomplishing the object.

If Mr. Fowler's plan for retiring the greenbacks and issuing national bank currency *pari passu* were passed by Congress, we believe that it would work well and accomplish the desirable ends sought, but we believe that it will fail to secure popular approval, because it is circuitous, indirect, and not easily understood by the masses. The bill provides that any national bank that shall assume the current redemption in gold of an amount of United States notes equal to 20 per cent, of its capital may, without depositing United States bonds, immediately issue an amount of banknotes equal to 10 per cent. of its capital. At the end of one year it may issue an additional 10 per cent., and on both issues it shall pay a tax at the rate of one-quarter of 1 per cent. a year. Banks that agree currently to redeem United States notes equal to 20 per cent. of their capital shall at the same time surrender to the United States Treasurer an additional amount of United States notes equal to 10 per cent. of their capital, which shall be at once redeemed from the gold in the general fund of the Treasury, and shall not be reissued, but shall be cancelled and destroyed. The "average man" will perceive that a process is going on for retiring the greenbacks and enlarging the circulation of the national banks. The ins and outs of the scheme he will not understand, but he will put the worst construction upon them, and will therefore refuse to sanction the measure. Such is our apprehension, but we shall be glad if we have underestimated popular intelligence, and if it turns out that the public are prepared for this step. At all events, it is desirable to begin the discussion of a question which must come on soon; for the retirement of the bonded debt of the nation will make it necessary ere long to consider some other method of issuing national banknotes.

A more hopeful part of the bill is that which authorizes branch banks in any part of the United States. No other reform would be so useful as this, although its full efficiency can be realized only by a freer system of note issues than we now have. The Canadian, the Scotch, the French, and the German bank systems find their greatest usefulness in their branches, which collect and distribute capital and lend aid to industry, as a well-contrived plan of irrigation lends aid to agriculture. The United States is fifty years behind the age in this particular.

PROFESSOR MEADE ON THE STEEL COMPANY.

The *Quarterly Journal of Economics* contains a noteworthy article by Prof. Edward Sherwood Meade, of the University of Pennsylvania, on the U. S. Steel Company's capitalization. The thoroughness with which the subject is examined, the exclusion of mere theoretical assumptions, and the originality of some of the conclusions reached, entitle it to careful consideration. We shall say, to begin with, that we are not prepared to go to the same length as Professor Meade in drawing inferences as to the corporation's future. His conclusions are highly unfavorable, but they are based on several premises which remain to be proved, and which will presumably be disputed. Chief among these is the assumption of fluctuations in the steel trade of the future as extreme as those of the last two decades, although Professor Meade admits that there is high authority against the recurrence of so wide a swing of prices. We wish first, however, to outline the ingenious reasoning of the article. Whatever the deductions, it is a valuable contribution to the literature of the Trust question.

In the beginning, Professor Meade makes the point that the Steel Corporation, owning not only its own mills, but its own sources of raw material, is what has been called an integrated industry—that is to say, it is not dependent, even for a portion of its profits, on the market for crude products. Iron ore may advance in price or may decline; the Steel Corporation, owning the ore-beds which supply its mills, can regard either movement with indifference. This fact has been officially pointed out as an element of great strength in the Trust's position, and so it unquestionably is. But Professor Meade draws attention to another consideration, namely, that while the Steel Corporation cannot suffer from exorbitant prices for raw materials, it will not, on the other hand, derive any compensating gain, when prices for finished steel decline, from a simultaneous fall in the price of ore. In short, as Professor Meade states the proposition, "the products of the Steel Trust to-day are produced at ultimate and fundamental cost—a cost . . . which represents only the bare expenses of producing and transporting the various materials." Profits will hereafter be increased or diminished only as economies in manufacture are introduced, or as total sales and average prices rise or fall.

The financial history of a blast-furnace company, vouched for as accurate and as typical of the highest efficiency, is next taken as a basis of comparison. The years reviewed are from 1890 to 1898 inclusive—the first year being the culmination of a "boom" in steel, the second the last of a seven-year period of reaction. To sum up briefly the figures of this table, the price of iron is shown to have fallen from $15.74 per ton in 1890 to $12.31 in 1893, and $9.79 in 1898. The profit per ton declined simultaneously from $2 in 1890 to $1 in 1893, and 76 cents in 1898. The upshot was that, in spite of greatly enlarged production, the annual net earnings, which were $67,928 in 1890, decreased to $25,787 in 1893, and, despite a subsequent fall of 25 per cent. in the cost of raw material, rose only to $32,319 in 1898.

Professor Meade's next effort is to ap-

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ply to this company the capitalization of the Steel Corporation. That is to say, he allows the same relative appropriation of annual earnings for sinking fund and surplus as is allowed by the Steel Corporation, and next supposes bonds and preferred and common shares to be outstanding in the same ratio to the company's earnings of 1890 as the Steel Corporation's various forms of capital bore to its earnings of 1901. Reckoning then the 5 per cent. interest charge on the computed bond indebtedness, and 7 and 4 per cent. respectively on the two classes of stock, he finds that the blast-furnace company in question would have earned in the first year a surplus over dividends, charges, and surplus appropriation of $27,170, but would thenceforward have reported a deficit varying from $1,684 in the second year (1891) to $32,512 in 1892, and ending at $18,438 in 1898. Taking the company's capital as assigned, Professor Meade concludes that in 1892 no dividends could properly have been paid, and that thenceforward, to the last year on the list, the cumulative dividend on the preferred stock would have been heaped up as a future charge, without any actual payment on either class of shares.

The inferences drawn, as regards the future of the Steel Corporation's capital, are extremely interesting, but, as we have said already, not altogether conclusive. We have to consider, in the discussion, whether Mr. Meade's assumption that the blast-furnace company selected for his figures is fairly typical, is just. The bankruptcy, in the dark days of the early nineties, of numerous powerful steel-manufacturing companies (some of them now incorporated with the United States concern) gives a good deal of warrant for the comparison. This is at least what would have been the tendency of events ten years ago. The question of largest interest now is whether the steel trade is to witness again the violent fluctuations of the past decade.

Our own judgment is, that the period will not be exactly similar. We are led to this conclusion by examination of the causes which largely brought about the fall in steel and iron after 1890. The controlling influence in that movement was an extreme advance in prices, which called into existence a host of iron and steel mills incapable of producing except at the high prices then prevailing. Continued stimulation of prices by speculators multiplied both the number and output of these mills. When consumption slackened and prices fell, these mills continued to produce; they kept up the output even at a loss, rather than sacrifice their capital. Unsold stocks of iron rose from 247,679 tons at the close of 1889 to 608,921 at the end of 1890, and 711,649 at the end of 1896. All this time, prices, though lower than before, remained sufficiently above the foreign level to handicap the export trade, which made no real expansion in either iron or steel until 1897.

There was some possibility, a few months ago, that this experience might be repeated. The shrewdness of the Steel Corporation's managers, who set their faces resolutely against further rise in prices, prevented it. The truth is, as most people now can see, that the corporation's fight for steady prices meant something more than a mere move for the season's trade. The future stability of the company itself depended very largely on curbing speculative excesses—a truth to which Professor Meade's figures add the greatest emphasis. Ultra-conservatism is the one path to the successful working-out of this very remarkable experiment.

We have hitherto expressed our own regret that circumstances outside of trade considerations should have induced the Steel Corporation's managers to begin its history by paying dividends on the common stock. We have also stated our judgment that a company capitalized on the basis of the most prosperous trade year in a generation needs to be very liberal in its application of earnings to its surplus, and must in any case take its chances regarding dividend payments in the longer future. The Steel Corporation started with a heavy strain on its resources. It is very fortunate for the company that this year's market for its products should have developed demands far beyond what the most sanguine prophet could have foreseen. It is still more fortunate that this tidal wave of prosperity in the iron trade should have failed to sweep away the company's managers from their original position as to prices.

MUNICIPAL VS. NATIONAL PUBLIC LIFE.

Mayor Low's message is one more testimony to the immense appeal which modern municipal government makes to men with a talent for public affairs. Here are the greatest practical problems pressing for solution. The very difficulties are like a thrilling summons to civic patriotism. All the vast and complicated questions of finance and taxation, of transportation, of bridges and tunnels and docks, of water supply and sanitation, of engineering and architecture—the whole round of study and labor required to make New York a city where safety and comfort and beauty shall be as an atmosphere about its residents—what has American public life to offer more fascinating? The task is arduous, but for that reason all the more attractive to men conscious of power. It touches the life and welfare of millions. Success here will be a shot heard round the world. No condition of public service could seem better fitted to stir, as by a trumpet call, the heart of a strong man, ambitious of the general good.

Evidence, indeed, multiplies all over the United States that municipal public life is winning the larger attention and the higher honor which it deserves. The very growth of cities has forced a call for capacity in their administration, and ability is more and more responding to the demand for it. Better organization of city government has come, too, to give executive talent greater scope, and to yield it richer rewards. In definite and tangible result, in effort that tells immediately and that tells long, in direct contributions not only to the theory but to the practice of democratic government, it is really getting to be the case that the mayors and heads of departments of great cities have a field of usefulness opened to them far beyond that which lies, for example, before the average Congressman. Municipal public life is almost outbidding national public life.

Lord Rosebery tells us that such is the case in England also. In a recent speech at Swansea he deliberately asserted that, save in the case of a very few high officials at Westminster, "a man gets much more satisfaction out of municipal than out of Parliamentary work." Lord Rosebery, of course, is an expert in both kinds, his services on the London County Council having been fully as notable as his speeches in the House of Lords. He went on to ask, half banteringly, what pleasure any of his hearers would have got out of a membership in Parliament during the last session:

> "You would have walked a good many miles through the lobbies, breathed a great deal of bad air, you would have heard an indefinite number of bad speeches, you would have given a considerable number of votes dictated by your consciences or by your Parliamentary Whip, you would have voted after free discussion one-eighth, or less than one-eighth, of the expenditure of the country, and at the end of the session, in the middle of August, you would not be able to say what you had done beyond what I have suggested. You could not show one single tangible result of the precious summer months you had wasted in London. And what would you have to look forward to? Two or three addresses to your constituents, the opening of half-a-dozen bazaars, and, possibly, if you were a very popular character, a kick-off at a football match."

In contrast with this barren record, Lord Rosebery set the fruitful activities of even a municipal councillor at Swansea. There were the concrete matters of new streets and lighting and inspection and improving and beautifying the city—all this was not only useful to multitudes of men and women, and that in the directest way, but a most satisfying occupation, and one "worthy of any man's ambition."

We believe that very much the same comparison, to the same effect, could be made in this country. The usual Representative goes the same treadmill round as the average member of Parliament. He figures as one name more on roll-call. He gets his deluge of begging letters.

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Offices he cannot secure for one in five hundred of his applicants, and so he trudges over to the Agricultural Department to send seeds or cuttings to his constituents—seeds being, as one cynical Congressman observed, "the only thing at Washington not in the classified service." The ordinary member of Congress is, in short, simply lost and whelmed at the national capital. He votes as his party leaders bid him, he makes his little speech on "pension-bill nights" to empty seats and drowsy galleries, he goes through the petty and weariful routine of the session, and has little to show for it. No wonder that an eager spirit chafes at the great waste of energy involved in all this, and sometimes confesses, as one of the most successful Representatives recently did, that he had grown infinitely tired of the whole vain show, and was about ready to "give up being a great man at Washington," for the sake of going to some busy city to practise law.

Contrast with this the concrete work which every day appeals to and absorbs the powers of the Mayor of New York, the Presidents of the Boroughs, and the heads of departments. Their chief business is not to discuss and vote, but to do things. When they do vote, they vote, not on a question of party policy, but on the tangible thing that shall take body in consequence. Under their touch, bridges leap over the rivers, and tunnels burrow under the streets, stately structures rise for school and hospital, and a noble water-front stretches its docks and piers north and south, while a water-supply is brought from afar. A municipal administrator, at the end of his term, has visible results like these to point to as the crown of his labors and his pride. Ask him where his monument is, and he has but to say, *Circumspice.*

It is, we say, only the exceptional and rare man in national public life to whom such opportunities and such worthy ambitions present themselves. The city bulks larger, in fact, than ever before in the appreciation of Americans. This is as it should be. It must always be more important to have good government at our doors than to attempt merely to direct national policy aright. And the increasing appeal which municipal public life makes to our best and strongest will call into the service of our cities a distinctly higher order of talent, provided only that the citizens show steadiness of purpose enough to make a career for it, both stable and rewarding, and sense enough to delight to honor him that cleanseth a city above one that merely taketh it. Even as it is, the attractions of high office in the municipalities have already drawn men who have done much to take away our old reproach. This has been lately repeated by the French writer, Émile Boutmy, who asserts that only the morally and intellectually inferior are found in our public service. He thinks that this is a result of our having been an "economic society" rather than a "political society," and that our ablest men have found too many prizes elsewhere to give their time to public administration. There is doubtless truth in this; but what we are concerned to remark now is that conditions are changing, that our cities are more and more able to command the abilities of their more capable sons, and that, as the case now stands, a man of parts and ambition need hope for no prouder distinction than to be able to say, "I have done some service to the city, and they know it."

"DOCTOR'S-DISSERTATION ENGLISH."

"Doctor's-dissertation English" is a phrase coined by Prof. J. Franklin Jameson of the University of Chicago. In his recent convocation address, "The Influence of Universities upon Historical Writing," he said:

> "I have read a good many doctoral dissertations, and a good many historical articles offered by young *Gelehrten* to an historical review. Almost always these are written in a style 'that would have made Quintilian stare and gasp.' Indeed, the experienced observer is aware of a distinct dialect, doctor's-dissertation English, a compound made up as are Chinook and Pidgin English, insufficiently studied as yet, but apparently composed of good English, the scholastic jargon of a specialty, and undergraduate slang. It may be that the years will work upon these minds a clarifying process like that mysterious alchemy which, I am informed, takes medical students mostly wicked and transforms them into doctors mostly good."

It is to be hoped that Professor Jameson himself will find time to expand this *obiter dictum* into an adequate discussion. During his editorship of the *American Historical Review* he must have drunk deep at wells of English impure and much defiled.

His statement, just quoted, leaves untouched the principal reasons for the astounding futility of the average doctor's dissertation. No mere compound of scholastic jargon and slang can ever exert such soporific power. Indeed, the vocabulary which Professor Jameson describes may entertain by its very vivacity and novelty. No, the trouble lies deeper than words; it permeates every part of the structure. When the young *Gelehrte* writes, his sentences are vast, tangled, and unwieldy, so that reading them is like cutting through a tropic jungle; his paragraphs are equally shapeless, without beginning, middle, or end—conglomerate heaps of half-related ideas. Indeed, throughout his whole dissertation he sets down one fact after another, sometimes without arrangement, often without proportion and without emphasis. If he takes such a vital question as "Shaksperian Criticism from Thomas Rymer to Hamilton W. Mabie," he solemnly and painfully crawls from critic to critic, and after he is done he apparently understands as little of the whole trend of criticism as the worm which eats from elm-leaf to elm-leaf understands of the structure of the tree.

The truth is that these glaring faults are simply the sign of trouble within. The *Gelehrte* has nothing whatever to say, and, of course, he is completely gravelled in his attempt to keep up false appearances. He presents the most piteous spectacle known to the learned world, as he wanders helplessly up and down in the blank and trackless desert of his dissertation. His hopeless bewilderment is a result of his being crushed between two millstones. He finds the heads of colleges and schools more and more insistent that their teachers shall have the doctor's degree, partly for the sake of the higher training, and partly for the sake of a pretentious show in the faculty list. On the other hand, he must meet the demands of colleges that the little doctors whom they are grinding out by the dozen shall each make a "contribution" to the knowledge of his subject. The job of advancing the limits of knowledge in these days of extreme specialization is a heavy one; and when the average commonplace young candidate for a doctorate attacks it, he must either fail wretchedly, or his professors must exercise extraordinary charity in interpreting the word "contribution."

Take a case in point. As a subject for a doctor's dissertation, "Descriptions of Natural Scenery by Nineteenth Century Novelists" is fairly suitable. Suppose a student who laboriously draws through the leading novels a fine-tooth comb, notes all the descriptions, monotonously enumerates them under such headings as "Dickens," "Thackeray," and "Meredith," and then is so muddle-headed that he cannot make any clear or interesting inference from his mass of facts. To be sure, he has shown abundant good will, and has performed an eye-reddening and back-breaking task; but his zeal hardly warrants his amiable professors in dubbing the monument of his wasted energy a "contribution," in bestowing the degree, and in urging him to inflict the dreary section about Meredith on the editor of the *Nation.* True, Columbia and one or two other universities are trying hard to make the dissertations like books in style and substance, as well as in size, and Harvard sets the example of placing the master's degree for work done as a half-way post at which all but the most promising runners are stopped; but these are voices crying in the wilderness. In short, the competition to manufacture paper scholars is so keen that scores of colleges are swept into it; whereas, everybody knows that the American universities which invariably enforce a proper requirement for the doctor's degree may be counted

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on the fingers of a single hand which has suffered considerably from amputation.

There are two paths of escape from present evils. If school authorities will be less eager to make a gaudy display of goods in their shop windows, they will not drive young men who are respectable teachers, but who are by no means original investigators, to desperate assaults upon the doctor's degree. If college authorities will weigh their degrees, instead of counting them, they will not encourage foolhardy and feeble endeavor and bestow diplomas as a reward for it. But both these paths are blocked by the present state of public opinion in and out of college—by our fierce hankering for show, for empty titles. Therefore, until we are all of a saner mind, we shall probably continue to ask our hapless young *Gelehrten* to write contributions that do not contribute, and that are original only because no one else has descended to such depths of folly. They will obediently continue to produce doctors' dissertations that are miracles of dulness and inconsequence, and will receive in return certificates for the most distinguished scholarship.

GERMAN DRAMATIC ART.

CLEVELAND, March 6, 1902.

It is, indeed, surprising to read in the *Nation* of February 27 that Prof. Kuno Francke thinks Björnson's "Beyond Our Strength" "should point the way toward the goal of the German drama"; that in this way it will " free itself from the shackles of sentimentality and conventional formality." Professor Francke has given us, in his 'German Literature as Determined by Social Forces,' by far the most incisive study and lucid statement of the subject that we have in English. The question naturally arises, Has he not allowed the great social force of the two parts of Björnson's "Ueber unsre Kraft" to bias him unconsciously as to their artistic and dramatic standard?

Both parts of "Ueber unsre Kraft" are very deficient in poetic conception, dramatic form, and artistic exposition. It would be hard to find two more poorly constructed plays; they are so lacking in the essential characteristic of the drama, unity of action, as not to merit the designation of dramas. The first part is in two acts, one of which consists of little more than the monologue of a woman lying ill in bed; other persons are around her, but as mere foils. The second part is in four acts, the fourth of which is a mere moral tag after the extremely melodramatic catastrophe at the real end of the play, where forty people are blown up by a revengeful servant in a palatial mansion. The first part is very sentimental, and the second very conventional; these are just the two things which modern German drama has suffered from, and must seek to avoid. Why, then, commend them as beacon-lights on the road to its goal? At the celebration of the fiftieth production of the first part, as well as at the *première* of the second part, in the Berliner Theater last winter, many dissenting hisses were heard amid the plaudits of approbation. Of course, the plays still draw large crowds, for they both contain vital problems expressed in such a sentimental and sensational way that they must ever appeal to the mob. But Professor Francke will remember, from his own excellent essay on "Bismarck as a National Type" ('Glimpses of Modern German Culture'), that the great artist in statecraft was wont to say that he felt doubtful about himself whenever he met with popular applause.

Fortunately for the German drama, no German dramatist of merit has been led astray by the religious fanaticism of the first part of Björnson's play, nor the social sentimentalism of the second. Even more fortunately, the gospel of Tolstoy has found but little favor among the German dramatists, with the exception of Arno Holz, Johannes Schlaf, and Karl Hauptmann, who have proved incapable of developing their palpably borrowed ideas. Tolstoy's 'Die Macht der Finsternis' contains but a scanty message for any country except Russia.

Neither Sudermann nor Hauptmann has attained as yet the artistic excellence of which they both gave promise. The latter seems too weak, the former too strong for real artistic expression of ideas; the one has too little to say, the other too much. Since the "Versunkene Glocke," Hauptmann has produced nothing of either intrinsic or artistic worth. "Fuhrmann Henschel" was a fall from the superb heights of real poetry to the lowlands of prosaic commonplace. "Schluck und Jan" was an ineffectual attempt to unite Shakspere's fancy and Grillparzer's technique in a dream-play; "Michael Kramer," a gruesome and rather trite monologue on the significance of art and death. "Der rote Hahn" is a mere continuation of "Der Biberpelz," with all its exquisite irony diluted into insipidity. Hauptmann is weak mentally and physically. Never shall I forget his appearance at the *première* of "Michael Kramer," at the Deutsches Theater, last winter, in Berlin. A tall, thin man, clad almost like a priest; the face pale and worn, the eyes intensely sad and always cast down. A shrinking timidity and a feminine spirituality were his characteristics of manner and appearance. He seems to have exhausted himself in the passionate travail of producing his masterpiece, the "Versunkene Glocke," which is, indeed, exquisite art.

Sudermann has developed into the most skilful playwright in Germany; withal he brings forth in each new play much thought, more or less deep. But he has descended artistically from the heights attained in "Johannes" and "Die drei Reiherfedern." "Johannisfeuer" is a fine study of heredity and environment in Ibsen's best manner, but contains several scenes rather more theatrical than dramatic. "Es lebe das Leben" is really a *Todtentanz*, for grim death lurks in almost every line; it is most intense and most improbable. In it Sudermann actually solves his problem by the inevitable realistic sole solution for all evils—suicide—against which he himself so energetically protested in "Die Ehre." Sudermann is a very strong man mentally and physically. He is a giant of strength, with a massive head and heavy beard. When he delivered his oration on the censorship of the press last winter before the Goetheverein in the Berlin Philharmonie, his manner was most bold, and his voice simply thundered around the vast auditorium. From him we may yet expect great things.

But the real dramatic artists in Germany to-day are neither Sudermann nor Hauptmann; neither Max Halbe, whose "Jugend" and "Mutter Erde" are true pictures of modern life, but lack artistic finish, nor Hartleben, whose popular "Rosenmontag" is dangerously near melodrama, nor Otto Ernst, whose "Flachsmann als Erzieher" is almost farcical in places, nor Wilbrandt, with his hybrid style, vacillating between realism and symbolism, nor Wildenbruch, with all his noble figures and brilliant pageants—but they are Ludwig Fulda and Arthur Schnitzler. Neither has the strength of Sudermann nor the poetic insight of Hauptmann, but both are artists to their finger-tips.

Fulda began his dramatic career with all the realism of the "youngest Germans," with modern social dramas, "Das verlorene Paradies" and "Die Sklavin." His success was assured, but, evidently disgusted with this prostitution of his genius, he turned to his true forte, the romantic Märchendrama of which Raimund had been the chief exponent, and which reached its apotheosis in Grillparzer's remarkable "Der Traum ein Leben." Fulda's "Talisman" is a Märchendrama in verse, containing some of the finest dramatic poetry since Grillparzer, and also the keenest political satire in any drama of to-day. Had Kaiser Wilhelm II. ever read the play, he would certainly forbid its performance. And all this bold exposition and deep thought is given us in a work of exquisite art. It was Fulda, with his "Talisman" (1893), who first started the healthy return to modern Romanticism; Hauptmann followed his lead with the "Versunkene Glocke" (1896), and Sudermann with "Die drei Reiherfedern" (1898). But to do Fulda justice in so short a sketch as this is impossible. Suffice it to say that by far the most artistic drama brought out in Berlin last winter was his comedy, "Die Zwillingschwester," with Agnes Sorma in the double rôle at the Lessing Theater. Those who were present will never forget that *première*. After all the socialistic rant of Tolstoy's "Macht der Finsternis," the depressing gloom of Hauptmann's "Michael Kramer," the tedious horror of Schlaf's "Meister Oelze," the sensational sentimentalism of Björnson's "Ueber unsre Kraft"—here at last was a work of art refreshing and inspiring.

Arthur Schnitzler is as yet almost unknown, but whoever has read and studied his latest work, "Der Schleier der Beatrice," a tragedy in verse of the Italian cinquecento, must agree that he is an artist, as the Germans say, "von Gottes Gnaden," by the grace of God. To arouse interest in him, let me cite the two concluding lines of his great drama, which sum up the spirit of the Italian Renaissance better than most long-winded histories of that fascinating time:

"Das Leben ist die Fülle, nicht die Zeit,
Und noch der nächste Augenblick ist weit."

"Life is the fulness thereof, not the time, and even the nearest moment is far away."

EDWARD STOCKTON MEYER.

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Correspondence.

OUR DUTY TO CUBA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The debt of satisfaction and instruction due the *Nation* for many years of entertainment is not to be discharged or repudiated for any slight cause, and yet it seems to me that the strength of language in this week's second editorial (first page) cannot be justified by any real facts. Is it a slip of the pen or a burst of enthusiasm that prompts you to say that the "dilatory House [of Representatives] is doing its best to bring bankruptcy and misery upon the island [of Cuba]"?

The proposition which I understand you to support with so much vigor is, in effect, to levy or maintain a sugar-tax of many annual millions on seventy millions of Americans, and hand over a third or half of it, as a rebate, subsidy, or gift, to the eight million Cuban aliens—in other words, to present them with the means of avoiding work, attaining wealth, and supporting their Government at our sole expense, we having already expended some lives and a few hundred millions in conquering for them their independence from Spain, after they had demonstrated their inability to get it for themselves. If your proposition is not here stated correctly, then the alternative must be to give up to them many millions of the best and surest public revenue we have, and maintain in its place taxes at war rates upon ourselves. Whatever the details proposed, the gist of the scheme is the support of a so-called Cuban Government of negroes and mulattoes for an indefinite period by the United States.

Your severity of statement falls upon all those Americans—whether in or out of Congress—who object to the scheme; that is, who see neither duty nor advantage in pampering alien peoples or paying for foreign governments in which they have no share, with taxes wrung from their own earnings. It appears to me that neither Lord North, nor George III., nor any other reckless tyrant ever devised a more predaceous scheme of "taxation without representation." If Congress can lawfully tax us, directly or indirectly, for the support of a foreign people, there cannot be one shred remaining of constitutional restriction on the fiscal powers of a Government falsely pretending to be representative and constitutional. At all events, it is a scheme respecting which honest differences of opinion must prevail that are entitled to respectful treatment.

I have no interest in sugar, except as a domestic consumer, and, like you, am no protectionist; but the project of taxing ourselves to support a foreign people of different race is protectionism in its most obnoxious form, and would be but stupidly disguised by the fraudulent device of tax manipulation in place of openly collecting the money and paying it over. If I decline to contribute alms to a street beggar, I might be stigmatized with more or less justice, but without absurdity, as mean or unfeeling; but surely it would be an abuse of words to charge me—as you substantially charge Congressional conservatives—with "doing my best to bring bankruptcy and misery upon the" beggar.

Not merely soundness of judgment, but fairness and precision of statement, have ever distinguished the *Nation* from the vulgar irresponsibility of the political press, and you must have many readers who, like me, appreciate such distinction, and would feel it as a severe personal misfortune if those sober qualities should come to be sacrificed or impaired, even in the strain and din of public discussion. I. J. W.

PHILADELPHIA, MARCH 8, 1902.

[The foregoing would be sound enough, on general principles, but the particular modifying facts are that, as President Roosevelt says, we have "inherited" the whole Cuban difficulty from the McKinley Administration, including the definite promise to grant tariff reductions on Cuban products; also, that a *quid pro quo* is to be had in the shape of tariff favors for our exports to Cuba. In other words, the "beggar" is, in reality, a peddler seeking to swap goods, to mutual advantage.—ED. NATION.]

YALE AT THE FORE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your excellent and discriminating notice of the Johns Hopkins celebration, in the *Nation* for February 27, contains the following sentence:

"President Gilman, then, was free to found an institution, unique in its day in America, of which productive scholarship should be the informing idea—free to take immediately the step which President Eliot, inspired even then by the same ambition, has since been able to take in the Harvard Graduate School."

Harvard University and President Eliot may rightly claim the position of general educational leadership during the quarter-century just past, but it is none the less fair to give due emphasis to the services of other institutions. The first American university to offer systematic non-professional instruction for graduates was undoubtedly Yale, where, under the inspiring influence of President Woolsey, the degree of doctor of philosophy was conferred, "upon examination," as early as 1861 (at Harvard not till 1870). The names of some of the earliest Yale doctors, Eugene Schuyler, James M. Whiton, and Arthur W. Wright, in 1861, Josiah W. Gibbs and Lewis R. Packard in 1863, are a sufficient guarantee of the character of the work then done at Yale. President Gilman himself was a professor at Yale from 1863 to 1872, and the splendid institution which he created at Baltimore may well be called the child of the earlier movement at New Haven. I may add that, in spite of hampering poverty and of troublesome administrative scruples during the years 1871-1886, the Yale Graduate School has grown and broadened, till in the present year Yale enrolls a larger number of graduate students than any of our older universities, save only metropolitan Columbia. PH.D.

BERKELEY, CAL., March 5, 1902.

LORD DURHAM'S REPORT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue for February 27 Mr. J. Davis Barnett of Stratford, Ontario, asks for confirmation of a Canadian legend that "the writing of Lord Durham's Report was in the main by Christopher Dunkin, a teacher in Greek at Harvard in 1837." In reply, permit me to say that I remember hearing, many years ago, while a young man living in the city of Quebec, that the late Mr. Justice Dunkin (who died at Knowlton, in that province, January 6, 1881), had had something to do with the preparation of that famous document. Other names were also mentioned, including that of the late Mr. Stewart Derbishire, afterwards a member of the Canadian Parliament, and, at the period of his death, Queen's Printer for Canada. But I do not think that either of these gentlemen, or any other, apart from Lord Durham himself and his chief official secretary, Charles Buller, had any considerable share in the undertaking; my reason being, in Mr. Dunkin's case, that, having been appointed Secretary of the Education Commission called into being by Lord Durham, his whole time would have been taken up with that branch of inquiry during the five months that his Lordship remained in the country. Moreover, in a memorandum of his public services which he supplied to me, as editor of the 'Canadian Parliamentary Companion,' while he was still in active public life, he made no mention of the circumstance; and as he was known in official circles as the "Demon of Detail," it would be very unlike him not to mention it, supposing that any foundation had existed for the story.

On the whole, it may, I think, be taken for granted that to the master hand of Charles Buller is to be attributed the credit for the framing and putting together of the major portion of what we must rightly regard as the Magna Charta of Canadian liberty and freedom. In fact, there never was any doubt expressed on the subject among the many with whom I conversed in the old days on this and kindred topics, including such well-informed statesmen and public men as the late Hon. Henry Black, C.B. (who was offered a seat in Lord Durham's Special Council), the late Stewart Derbishire, the late William Bristow, the late Hon. Joseph Howe, and the late Sir John A. Macdonald. All were of one mind, and most emphatic in their declarations.—Yours faithfully,

HENRY J. MORGAN.

483 BANK ST., OTTAWA, March 6, 1902.

THE TRUST OF GIRARD COLLEGE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the matter of "Perpetual Educational Trusts," about which you have written, and in relation to which Prof. Ewald Flügel of Stanford University, California, wrote you on February 12, I beg to send in this mail a copy of the proceedings in connection with the fiftieth anniversary of the opening of Girard College.

This institution, provided for in Mr. Girard's will, was formally opened in 1848, and has been in successful operation since then. Examining the will, page 118, etc., you will find exceeding great detail, not only in the matter of the construction of the several buildings, but also in connection with the organization and future management of the College. Having, on page 137, etc., indicated the purposes of his endowment, and the details for its management, he adds, on page 140, "In relation to the organization of the College and its

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appendages, I leave, necessarily, many details to the Mayor, Aldermen, and citizens of Philadelphia and their successors." Under this clause material modifications have been made in the curriculum and in the general administration of affairs, so that the graduates of the institution might be prepared to meet the changed conditions of modern life. Strict adherence to the literal provisions of Mr. Girard's will would have minimized the advantages flowing from his endowment, and the clause leaving many details to the managers of the institution has been of great advantage.

Permit me also to call your attention to the fact that, while this, perhaps the most magnificent endowment in the United States, is called a "college," we receive boys as young as six years of age, but not older than ten years of age, and that they graduate as young as fourteen years of age, and that all of them must leave the institution when they become eighteen years of age.

By legislative enactment passed in 1869 (see page 158, etc.) the management of the College was placed in the control of a board called the "Board of Directors of City Trusts," thereby securing greater permanency of administration.

Yours truly,

LOUIS WAGNER, President.

BOARD OF DIRECTORS OF CITY TRUSTS,
PHILADELPHIA, March 5, 1902.

Notes.

Charles Scribner's Sons will publish shortly 'Music in the History of the Western Church,' with an introduction on religious music among primitive and ancient peoples, by Prof. Edward Dickinson of Oberlin College.

'The True Aaron Burr,' by Charles Burr Todd, is announced by A. S. Barnes & Co.

'A Grand-Duchess and her Court,' by Frances Gerard, which E. P. Dutton & Co. will presently bring out, is a biography of Anna Amalie of Saxe-Weimar.

A volume of short stories by Maxim Gorky, 'Twenty-Six and One,' is in the press of J. F. Taylor & Co.

The Brown-Merrill Co. will issue 'Forces in Fiction,' by Richard Burton.

The Grafton Press have nearly ready 'The Mobile Boer,' by Capts. John A. Hassell and A. R. I. Hiley; 'The Land of Nome,' of gold-seeking fame, by Lanier McKee; 'The Worth of Words,' by Dr. Ralcy Husted Bell; and 'Love Songs and Other Poems,' by Owen Innsley.

Prince Henry's cramming for his visit to this country having embraced Mr. J. F. Muirhead's 'America the Land of Contrasts,' the publisher, Mr. John Lane, has thought a third edition of this genial but not fulsome work timely. Mr. Muirhead's penultimate chapter, we remark, is styled "Baedekeriana," as dealing with "subjects related to the tourist and the guidebook," and reflects the competent observation of the compiler of 'Baedeker's Handbook to the United States.' It is a comparison of the traveller's creature comforts here and in the Old World, not always to our advantage. Mr. Lane has just ready 'The Book of the Apple,' by H. H. Thomas, and 'Of Gardens: An Essay,' by Mrs. Caldwell Crofton.

Immediately forthcoming from D. Appleton & Co. are 'Deep-Sea Plunderings,' by Frank T. Bullen; 'The Nearer East,' by D. G. Hogarth; 'The History of the Louisiana Purchase,' by James K. Hosmer; 'The Living Races of Mankind,' by H. N. Hutchinson; 'General Forrest,' by J. Harvey Mather; 'The Earth's Beginning,' by Sir R. S. Ball; and 'Practical Forestry,' by Prof. John Gifford.

A paper by Thoreau, "The Service," declined for the *Dial* by Margaret Fuller, and never published, is to be handsomely printed at the Merrymount Press for Charles E. Goodspeed, Boston, in limited editions. Mr. F. B. Sanborn will furnish an introduction.

L. C. Page & Co., Boston, are now bringing out the second series of John Heneage Jesse's Memoirs, the first having already been published by them in a popular form.

A new edition of Lewis and Clark's Journals, following the Philadelphia edition of 1814, supervised by Dr. James K. Hosmer, who will provide an introduction and an index, and of Hennepin's Travels, edited by Reuben Gold Thwaites, after the edition of 1698, are fall enterprises of A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. add to their limited "special editions" a reprint of Lowell's remarkable Birmingham address on Democracy. The long Elzevir form of the little volume is attractive, but the page is too narrow to display properly the really beautiful old-style font which has been cut especially for this reprint. Otherwise the making of the volume is in every way tasteful. The handsome letter-press has and needs no other enhancement than that which a sparing use of printer's ornaments and of rubrication affords. The binding is of sober gray boards, with a fawn back, and the edition is limited to 500 numbered copies. The prefatory note is by the late Horace E. Scudder, and recalls vividly that constant grace and scholarly amenity which he never failed to lend to his routine editorial tasks.

The two latest additions to the Dent-Macmillan "Temple Classics" are Goldsmith's Plays in a single volume, with brief but excellent notes; and Bunyan's 'The Holy War Made by Shaddai upon Diabolus,' best of the aftermath of the 'Pilgrim's Progress.' In both cases, the reprint is from first, or virtually first, editions. Bunyan's portrait accompanies his allegory.

The trade catalogues of J. Pearson & Co., London, are of the kind worth cherishing as books in and for themselves, in view of their elegant appearance and bibliographical information. Such is that newly issued entitled 'Very Choice Books,' remarkable for its illustrations of fine bindings, along with facsimiles of title-pages and MSS. We may not particularize the contents, but No. 197 is the original MS. of R. L. Stevenson's "The Feast of Famine," composed in Tahiti; while No. 205 is the (bound) proof-sheets of Voltaire's poem, "La Bataille de Fontenoy" (Paris, 1745).

Dr. Dennis's 'Centennial Survey of Foreign Missions' (Revell Co.) is an elaborate statistical supplement, with illustrations and maps, to his 'Christian Missions and Social Progress,' and gives in tabular form a really admirable statement of the present situation in Protestant missions. It is unfortunate only in that the large fact of Roman Catholic foreign missions is ignored, and the word "evangelical" used for "Protestant." The Roman Church certainly shows little courtesy or respect to other organizations, but that is no reason why Protestants should retort, and unchurch it in turn.

Mr. F. E. Kidder, C. E., known to all persons engaged in building as the author of the 'Architects' and Builders' Pocket-Book' and a two-volume work on 'Building Construction and Superintendence,' has made for William T. Comstock's publishing house a practical sort of book on 'Churches and Chapels.' It deals with the planning of such buildings and their construction, the hanging of visible roofs from the real roof, or the supporting of them upon the walls (with at least one most extraordinary drawing, a curiosity of false perspective), with seating, heating, the hanging of bells, the placing of clocks and of pulpits. With these and the very bold suggestions as to novel plans of Sunday-school and church, the reader should be satisfied. It has been thought right, however, to introduce in chapter ii. an appeal to him to deal with churches in a churchmanlike spirit; as well as to give special though brief notice to the supposed requirements of the Protestant Episcopal Church in the way of interior design.

'A First Book upon the Birds of Oregon and Washington,' by William Rogers Lord (Office of the J. K. Gill Co., Portland, Oregon), gives untechnical brief descriptions of 148 birds. The size, song, habitat, and color of each species are noted, and some little account of feeding and nesting habits is added. In conclusion there are a chapter on domesticating and taming birds, a key for identifying species, and an outline for a course in bird study. The book has been introduced into the Oregon public schools for supplementary reading, and appears in a second and improved edition. As the only handbook for the region, it will doubtless be of great value to the enthusiastic bird student; but because of its inadequacy of illustration, bareness of description, and lack of order in the arrangement of species, it does not appear likely to hold the attention of the average school child.

The new 'Lehrbuch der Meteorologie,' by Dr. Julius Hann of Vienna (Leipzig: Tauchnitz), is one of those excellent treatises to which the reviewer can give only the heartiest praise. It presents a conservative and philosophical treatment of all departments of meteorology, and an epitome of its progress during the last forty years. Abundant extracts and citations make the book a most serviceable guide to original sources. Like Bartholomew's 'Atlas of Meteorology' (the first part of his projected Physical Atlas), published a few years ago, Hann's 'Lehrbuch' at once takes rank as indispensable to all who seriously pursue the scientific study of the atmosphere.

Malwida von Meysenbug's recently published volume entitled 'Individualitäten' (Berlin and Leipzig: Schuster & Loeffler), consists of five studies of distinguished men and women, embodying personal recollections or the results of historical investigations. The first paper, on "Nietzsche," is by far the most successful of the many attempts to trace the moral and intellectual development of this remarkable character, leading to the gradual derangement and final eclipse of his brilliant faculties. It is

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a proof of her keen psychological insight that neither warm friendship nor the thorough appreciation of his powers blinded our author to foretokens of the impending evil long before it was generally anticipated by his admirers. Indeed, the idiosyncrasies which excited the enthusiasm of his disciples filled her with alarm as premonitions of insanity. The second and longest chapter, "Frauen," is a most interesting and instructive account of the artistic and scholarly achievements of women centuries ago, especially in Italy, beginning in the twelfth century with the Medical School of Salerno (the famous Schola Salernitana), of which some of the most distinguished professors and many of the students were women, and which was the nursery of medical science and the model of medical instruction for all Europe, and ending with the epoch of the Renaissance at the close of the sixteenth century. The gallery of portraits includes also several celebrities of the nineteenth century, and is followed by delineations of the grandnephew of Cardinal Mazarin, Louis Mancini Mazarini, a diplomatist of the eighteenth century, now quite forgotten; Prince Kropotkin, and other Russian revolutionists; and Joseph Mazzini. It is to be regretted that a book with so rich and varied contents should have been published without an index.

A large quarto volume of 290 pages, 'Pétrarque,' by Prince D'Essling and Eugène Müntz, has just been published by the *Gazette des Beaux-Arts*, in Paris. It treats Petrarch chiefly from an artistic point of view, and aims to show his influence upon the artists of his time, and the impulse given by him to artistic production. The illustrations consist of twenty-one full-page plates and 181 engravings in the text, those of the "Trionfi" being especially fine. The edition comprises 260 numbered copies, 10 on Japanese paper.

The extraordinary dustfall in Europe a year ago (March 9-12, 1901) has been studied by Hellmann and Meinardus, whose memoir, has lately appeared in the *Abhandlungen* of the Royal Prussian Meteorological Institute. It is shown beyond dispute that the dust came from the Sahara, and not from South America, as the famous Ehrenberg concluded for similar dustfalls many years ago. Dust storms were observed in the Algerian Sahara during the days immediately preceding the dustfall in Europe. South of the Alps there was a stormy sirocco; further north, the lower air was relatively quiet, but the higher currents were strong from the south, their velocity of seventy kilometres an hour agreeing with the rate at which the dusty area was extended northward. The microscopic analysis of the dust showed it to be of a mineral composition such as the Sahara could furnish. Around the Mediterranean the dust fell during the dry sirocco; but further north, especially in northern Germany, the dust came down with rain and snow. Most of it fell south of the Alps. Further north the size and the specific gravity of the particles were reduced. The average weight of a grain of quartz dust in northern Germany was 1:3,200,000,000 gramme. The total fall is estimated to have weighed 2,000,000 tons.

The Copenhagen *Politiken* reports that the only one of the five proposed Nobel Institutes now in operation is the Literary, and this consists as yet chiefly of a large library, purchased recently in various parts of Europe by Professor Warburg, at a cost of four hundred thousand kronen, and embracing almost exclusively belles-lettres, especially of modern times. In this department the collection is the most complete in the world. The new library has been deposited in a new and massive building, modelled after structures of the Middle Ages and the Wasa period. The library is in charge of eight men of letters, who are appointed by the Swedish Academy.

Although the year 1909 is still far distant, two of the leading universities of Germany are preparing to celebrate centennial anniversaries on an extensive scale at that time. These are Berlin, which, the youngest of the universities of the Fatherland with the exception of Bonn, will be one hundred years old, and Leipzig, which, the oldest with the sole exception of Heidelberg, will have passed its semi-millennial milestone. Both had interesting beginnings, Berlin being the child of hope in the darkest days of the Napoleonic era, and Leipzig, in 1409, the result of the emigration of two thousand German students from Prague, on account of difficulties with the Bohemian section of the institution in that city. In Berlin a special committee has been appointed, with representatives from all the four faculties, with the understanding that their chief work shall be the preparation of a history of the University, and the Leipzig budget for 1902 and 1903 sets aside a good sum for the coming jubilee. In reality, the University of Halle might celebrate its fourth centennial during the current twelvemonth, as the University of Wittenberg, of which the Halle institution is the continuation, was founded in 1502. However, no special celebration is contemplated.

The Linguistic Survey of India has been mainly occupied during the past year on the languages of Assam, Eastern Bengal, and Upper Burma. "Grammars and vocabularies have been prepared, and specimens edited, of some ninety languages, of most of which little but the names have hitherto been known." Among the new dialects unearthed is one in which conjugation is partly carried out by infixes instead of by the customary prefixes. The results of the survey strongly corroborate the theory, maintained by Dr. Hoernle, of a second Aryan invasion of India, the language of the newcomers being the "main parent of the classical Sanskrit." The extraordinarily complex character of the linguistic condition of the country is revealed by the fact that the list of the known dialects of India, compiled for the purposes of the Survey, contains 721 entries!

The thirteenth session of the International Congress of Americanists will be held in the halls of the American Museum of Natural History, New York city, October 20-25, 1902. Communications on the archæology, ethnology, and early history of the two Americas may be oral or written, and in French, German, Spanish, Italian, or English. All persons interested to become members of the Congress may do so by signifying their desire to Mr. Marshall H. Saville, General Secretary of the Commission of Organization, American Museum of Natural History, New York, and remitting either direct to the Treasurer (Mr. Harlan I. Smith, American Museum of Natural History), or through the General Secretary, the sum of three dollars.

—Mr. William Roscoe Thayer contributes to the March *Atlantic* an eminently readable paper on "Dante as a Lyric Poet," somewhat strenuous in its polemic against the idea of scholarship which would have the would-be scholar read "not the originals, but the reviews of critiques of commentaries on the originals," though, perhaps, not without sufficient provocation. Dante's power and range as a lyrist Mr. Thayer would account for largely by his intense interest and participation in the life about him, during the years when the commentators would have us believe that his passion for Beatrice had shut him out from all other thoughts, "now plunged in gloom, now fainting or seeing visions, for ever sighing and weeping, and more than once stark mad." The paper is valuable for the emphasis which it throws upon a side of Dante's life and work too apt to be neglected, and still more valuable for its timely plea in behalf of direct study and enjoyment of great art, as against the misplaced erudition which "continually thrusts upon us irrelevancies whose only excuse is that they are facts." In the "Confessions of a Provincial Editor" we have a lively setting forth of the alleged impossibility of any such thing as even a moderate degree of independence in the press of a city of ordinary size and character; but the picture would be more convincing if the writer were not obliged to confess that he hauled down the flag of his ideals at the very first shot from the enemy, without anything worthy the name of resistance. Mr. William C. Dreher's "Letter from Germany" gives a suggestive description of the feeling produced in that country by our refusal to make any material tariff concessions, displaying an attitude on the part of Americans "so incomprehensible to the German mind that the conclusion is general here that our tariff policy is swayed by selfish interests outside the Government." Goldwin Smith contributes his recollections of the feeling in England during our civil war, and puts matters in a more favorable light than the customary view of the past would admit, so far as British official circles are concerned.

—'The Teaching of History' (Macmillan) is a thin but weighty volume, which contains essays by nine graduates of Oxford and Cambridge. As most of the writers are still engaged in lecturing at their own universities, their opinions on pedagogical matters are likely to have been formed by recent practical experience. Not only are they themselves products of the historical revival in England, but they are now carrying forward by their own efforts the good work which was begun at Oxford and Cambridge a generation ago. Lord Acton was to have been the editor of the series, in co-operation with Mr. W. A. J. Archbold. However, as ill-health prevented him from contributing any word of his own, the task of writing a general introduction was placed in the hands of Professor Maitland, who discharged it, as Mr. Archbold says, "under circumstances which make our obligations to him the greater." This introductory essay, though largely occupied with an account of historical studies in the past, contains some pithy observations concerning the difference between good history and bad, the need of training a young

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historian properly, and the expansion of the historical field. "To make Gibbons or Macaulays may be impossible; but it cannot be beyond the power of able teachers to set in the right path many of those who, say what we will, are going to write history well or are going to write it ill." Professor Maitland lays no special stress upon his own subject of Constitutional law. Indeed, one is chiefly impressed by the catholicity of his utterances. "And history," he concludes, "is deepening. We could not, if we would, be satisfied with the battles and the protocols, the alliances, and the intrigues. Literature and art, religion and law, rents and prices, creeds and superstitions, have burst the political barrier, and are no longer to be expelled. The study of interactions and interdependencies is but just beginning, and no one can foresee the end. There is much to be done by schools of history; there will be more to be done every year." Several of the contributors, besides Professor Maitland, are widely known in this country. Professor Gwatkin of Cambridge writes on ecclesiastical history; Mr. R. L. Poole of Oxford on palæography and diplomatic; Dr. William Cunningham of Cambridge on economic history, and Prof. W. J. Ashley on the teaching of history in America. There are also essays by Mr. Heitland, Mr. Tanner, Mr. Woodward, and Mr. Marten. It is a book which abounds with useful suggestions, and much of its doctrine will prove serviceable to teachers in America as well as in England.

—'Chronicles of the House of Borgia,' by Frederick Baron Corvo (Dutton), deals with a variegated subject, and is one of the most highly colored books ever written on that subject. Pope Alexander VI. is bound to be the central figure in any historical work that takes up the career of his family, for although St. Francis Borgia is among the most eminent of the Jesuits, he left no deep mark upon the course of human affairs. Alexander VI., on the contrary, lived and reigned at a critical period. For centuries he has been taken as a type of the Renaissance pontiff, and, whatever his traits of character may have been, no one can dispute the importance of his place in the annals of the papacy. Thus, while Mr. Corvo makes his 'Chronicles' include the name of Don Alessandro Borgia, born 1898, and concludes with the aspiration "ad multos annos," most readers, whether historians or others, will fix their attention chiefly upon what he says of Alexander VI. In brief, Mr. Corvo thinks that this celebrated pontiff has been badly treated, and numerous attacks are made upon those who have attacked him. Still, the book professes not to be one of vindication. "The writer," it is said, "does not write with the simple object of 'whitewashing' the House of Borgia; his present opinion being that all men are too vile for words to tell." But if there is no conscious design of rehabilitation, the incidental effect of the volume is to put forth a plea on behalf of one who has been maligned. Like other historical problems, the character of Alexander VI. demands a study of evidence, and Mr. Corvo does not handle evidence well. Indeed, we have met with few authors of equal reading who show so little capacity for keeping to the essential points of an argument. To begin with, his style is wholly unsuited to the task of separating truth from fiction. "In his manner, the present writer has endeavored to rush from mood to mood, in consonance with the subject under consideration, with something of the flippant breathless masterful versatility which Nature uses. For men were very natural in the Borgian Era." Mr. Corvo has certainly succeeded in becoming flippant and breathless, but that he has done much for the reputation of Alexander VI. we cannot agree. It is by no means impossible that something may yet be said on behalf of that pontiff which will carry weight. If so, a totally different method from that of Mr. Corvo must be adopted. Yet, while this book abounds with exaggerated mannerisms and euphuistic drolleries, it is marked in many ways by literary talent. The strongest impression which one derives from it is that of contradiction. The author has read widely in the history and literature of the Italian Renaissance, but he is often guilty of making the most singular slips. His manner of approaching the difficulties which are presented by a conflict of testimony is altogether wrong; but scattered here and there may be found passages which are clever and entertaining. The book is handsomely printed and illustrated.

—Readers of Victor Cucheval's entertaining and useful 'Histoire de l'Éloquence Romaine,' from the death of Cicero to the accession of Hadrian, will feel a certain sense of disappointment in his 'Cicéron Orateur' (Paris: Belin Frères), given to the public some eight years after it was announced by the author as in preparation. According to the first announcement, it was to deal with Cicero and the Eloquence of his Times, but the twenty-five pages of the closing chapter hardly constitute a fulfilment of the latter part of this promise. Nor is the body of the book just what one would have looked for. One must be a pretty enthusiastic Ciceronian to follow without a sense of monotony several hundred pages held down quite closely to a mere résumé in French of Cicero's extant orations; and if one be so enthusiastic, he will do better to devote his attention directly to the original text. We must not do the author the injustice of leaving the impression that his analyses are entirely bare of critical comment—a Frenchman would be incapable of that; but there is certainly not the vivacious flow of appreciative criticism which the French temperament plus classic scholarship so easily engenders. Nor does one find anything materially original in the few critical suggestions which are offered. Unhappily, Mr. Cucheval is not original even in attempting to establish Cicero's claim to rank as a poet of real importance, since Voltaire did the same thing, and more recently Prof. Tyrrell. The critics of a period when there was a better basis for criticism than the fragments which have survived, evidently thought of Cicero's poetry just about what M. Patin exclaims of his having written five hundred lines in a single night: "Tour de force malheureux!" And there is no better solution of the problem than to drop it there. Material for a popular setting forth of the great orator of the expiring Roman republic has accumulated in great abundance during the present generation; one must regret that M. Cucheval has not so used it as to give to the general reader in attractive form what scholarly research has made available to the few.

GOODWIN'S DEMOSTHENES.

Demosthenes on the Crown. With critical and explanatory notes, an historical sketch and essays, by William Watson Goodwin, Hon. LL.D. and D.C.L., Eliot Professor of Greek Literature in Harvard University. Cambridge, Eng.: The University Press; New York: Macmillan. 1901.

Harvard Studies in Classical Philology: Goodwin Volume. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press. 1901.

The aim of Professor Goodwin's compact edition of 'Demosthenes on the Crown' is, in the editor's words, to supply students with what he deems most essential to a thorough understanding of this masterpiece of oratory. This aim is accomplished by a revision of the text, by a judicious commentary, and by a series of essays on the manuscripts, the argument of the oration, on legal questions and the history of the period, in which it is safe to say that no word is wasted, and that every statement has the freshness, the weight, and the authority which derive directly from a resort to the ultimate sources. Hence this edition will hereafter become as indispensable to the scholar as it is to the students for whom it is primarily designed.

The critical notes are based on ten selected manuscripts, but they reveal chiefly the superiority of that which is known as Σ, a parchment of the tenth century, brought into Europe by Lascaris and now belonging to the National Library of Paris. This, together with L (S of the Laurentian Library in Florence), probably represented the class known as "the manuscripts of Atticus," who was, according to Usener, the friend of Cicero. In most passages the authority of these two outweighs that of all others combined. Professor Goodwin has made use of the facsimile of Σ, published in Paris, and in doing so has corrected a dozen or more errors or omissions in Voemel's report of the manuscript. It is a curious fact that two brief fragments of the Oxyrhyncus Papyrus (of the first or second century A. D.) confirm certain important readings of these two manuscripts, besides furnishing several unique and suggestive readings worthy of consideration. This is a rich yield in fragments which represent about one-fortieth of the whole oration. Professor Goodwin's notes constitute a storehouse of commentary on nice and delicate points of Greek usage. The clearness of these logical analyses gives them the beauty of a geometrical demonstration; and the result is occasionally to settle questions of fact, as in §63, or questions of history, as in §23, where Demosthenes affirms not that "no embassy had ever been sent," but that "there was then no embassy out on its mission."

A very satisfactory and practical use to which the editor has applied his studies of codex Σ is a contribution towards settling the genuineness of the documents cited in the Orations on the Crown. These documents, purporting to be decrees of the Senate, letters from Philip, and verbatim transcripts of laws, would possess an almost

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unique value if genuine, and there was a time when certain scholars, among them the industrious Voemel, accepted their genuineness. Since then there have been fluctuations of opinion; but Professor Goodwin sums up the situation when he says, "It is now universally admitted, on internal evidence, that the documents are most transparent forgeries." This conclusion is strongly reinforced in the essay on "Stichometry of the MSS." The MS. of Σ gives at the end a number (2768), which has been shown by Christ to indicate the number of lines (στίχοι) contained in some standard text, probably of the Alexandrian Library. The actual number in Σ is 4963. Professor Goodwin finds that, if we exclude the documents, the standard divisions marked in Σ correspond in numbers varying little from 154 lines. If we include the documents, the standard 100 lines correspond erratically to anywhere from 215 to 165 lines of Σ. This is a tell-tale variation, which proves, as might be expected, that there is in all cases an excess, and in some cases a great excess, according to the length of the documents. However, the standard lines in different orations were of different length. Those in the Third Philippic were shorter than in the Crown.

The commentary, as a whole, is a model of reserve, precision, and completeness; it is exactly to the point and there is no surplusage. It is a conscientious endeavor to reach accurate interpretation, to attain the exact meaning of the orator, the precise force of his words, and to follow the course of his argument. While the editor disclaims novelty and makes general acknowledgment to his predecessors, a minute examination will show that in many cases new light has been thrown on passages that needed it, and will reveal many useful details and pertinent illustrations which are original. As a matter of curiosity, he notes that the passage containing the famous oath has no less than fifty sigmas in sixty-seven words—which may console us for the sibilance of our own anserine tongue. Apropos of the spirited sentence in the peroration, "I do not walk about the marketplace beaming and delighted at Alexander's successes and offering my congratulations to the people whom I think most likely to report them at Court," he reminds us strikingly that the greatest of these personages living in Athens at that epoch was Aristotle himself, the friend and correspondent of "the great Emathian Conqueror." "It would be interesting, but not quite pleasant," he remarks, "to find here an allusion to the great philosopher."

In all legal points and questions this volume is particularly strong. Nothing could be neater, for example, than the concise paragraph on "The Principles of Unwritten Law," τοῖς ἀγράφοις νόμοις (§275³). A special study in the same direction is the Excursus on the Athenian γραφὴ παρανόμων, or indictment for proposing illegal measures. In discussing this procedure Mr. Goodwin draws a parallel with the function of our Supreme Court so pertinent and interesting that it deserves a few lines of summary. The Oration on the Crown was technically and primarily a plea in an action against Ctesiphon for proposing an unconstitutional measure. It is a remarkable instance of the Athenian genius for politics that, at a stage so early in their democratic experiment, they had contrived this device to impose a wholesome conservatism on the law-making power of the Assembly. They had the same temptation which besets our own State Legislatures to multiply casual and superfluous enactments. This tendency they restricted by developing a distinction between current legislation and a certain fixed body of written laws, which they called Solonian, and which roughly corresponded to our own Constitution. If any new statute could be shown before a special court to conflict with any portion of this code, it became *ipso facto* null and void. Without going into details, we may add that the procedure assumed the form of a criminal suit against the mover of the objectionable statute, and that the inquiry was held before a bench of 501 or 1,001 jurors, or judges, composed of ordinary citizens. Such a bench, extraordinary as it may seem to the modern mind, was by no means unfitted for its purpose; for the code was simple and limited, and the ordinary citizen, as Aristophanes humorously testifies, was well versed in litigation and in law. The differences between this procedure and that of our own Supreme Court are evident; but each procedure had essentially the same object, namely, the conservation, through deliberate process, of a stable fundamental code, which might serve as a check on rash or capricious or revolutionary legislation of the Assembly. As a matter of fact, when revolution was attempted in 411 B.C., the first step of the conspirators was to repeal the "action for unconstitutionality." Without such a check, as Aristotle acutely remarks, "the multitude is supreme, but not the laws; the rule of the people becomes despotic." But the check, which was wholesome and necessary at Athens—which suited an inchoate, unstable, and experimental democracy, destitute of deep roots and of complex organization—might not be required under a well-balanced and broad-based Constitution, rooted in ancient precedent and in the political aptitudes of the citizens. In Great Britain, as is well known, there is no such check on the House of Commons and no such distinction in the Constitutional law. "The Commons are absolute; they can make or unmake any institution of the country." They can disestablish the Church, or abolish the House of Lords or the Crown itself. But if such a change were brought to pass, it would infallibly be voted by a house elected on that express issue, and therefore commissioned by the country to work out such a revolution.

The question of rhythm in the language of Demosthenes Professor Goodwin avoids discussing, and refers the inquirer to Blass's "Attische Beredsamkeit." Blass's treatment of the subject is very interesting because it is the work of a scholar who has specially trained his ear to a perception of longs and shorts, because he thinks that he feels the rhythm of a Greek period somewhat as an ancient Greek felt it, and because, finally, he has reached conclusions as to the characteristics of Demosthenic prose rhythm which are in conflict with the prevailing opinion of what constitutes the charm and excellence of prose rhythm in general. He concedes that in many passages, and perhaps in certain orations, Demosthenes apparently did not aim at this rhetorical ornament, or did not fall into it; on the other hand, where it does occur, he maintains that the rhythm is so definite and deliberate that it borders on the forms and domain of poetry, it follows some of the metrical laws of quantity, it lapses into familiar metrical lines and balanced clauses of metrical equivalence. It is consequently susceptible even of being made a touchstone to determine or to restore correct readings, in some cases, just as the metre might serve that purpose in Aeschylus or Sophocles. He prints in his appendix the exordium of the Oration on the Crown divided into *kola* according to the scheme of Lachares, an Athenian rhetor of the fifth century A.D. The general effect of this scheme to the eye is that of the strophes or stanzas of a Pindaric ode; and Blass goes so far even as to point out metrical equivalences between certain *kola*, or lines, such as occur in the structure of the strophe and antistrophe in choral odes. He grants that there is great freedom in the composition, just as there is in the more complex melic poetry; and yet he points out the duplication, for example, of anapæstic dimeters and trochaic dimeters. There is, of course, no doubt that Demosthenes studied rhythmical effects with great nicety and care; he did not like to be caught extemporizing, and his speeches "smelt of the lamp"; there is even a tradition handed down of certain ancient manuscripts which preserved the orator's own colometry. Yet the question naturally arises, Is it likely that Demosthenes deliberately and with *malice prepense* composed these strophes, or would he himself have been astonished at the discoveries and the rhythmical arrangements of the rhetoricians? Are these, indeed, to a certain extent illusory—a mould imposed by their own ingenious fancy—and is it possible that the ancient canons of the best prose usage differed so widely from our own?

It is quite possible to take certain paragraphs from 'Atala' or from the 'Modern Painters,' and to arrange them into plausible *kola* with here and there even a fairly plausible metrical correspondence between the clauses. The rhetorical mechanism in these compositions is very much in evidence, and lends itself without much violence to such treatment; but who imagines that such *kola* were consciously designed, and who would venture to emend Rousseau or Chateaubriand or Ruskin or De Quincey upon considerations of rhythm? In our English version of the Psalms it would be easy to point out exact correspondences such as Blass detects, and occasionally, indeed, a distinct echo of the monotonous movement of Sternhold and Hopkins. In all rhythmical utterance and expression there is a strong unconscious tendency to repeat or imitate familiar rhythmical clauses, which may happen to be metrical. Whether such rhythms will be pleasing will depend largely on association, and chiefly, of course, on literary association. The Latin ear, for instance, was offended by the cadence of *esse videntur* at the end of a prose period, probably because, being the close of a hexameter line, it jarred upon the Latin conceptions of prose rhythm. The Greeks, as Longinus tells us, felt a similar incongruity when the movement of the language fell into a dance measure. "The hearer of an over-rhythmical passage," he says, "feels inclined to beat time with the speaker; he gives his attention to the cadence rather than to the meaning

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of the words." An English audience would never think of this. The Greeks were connoisseurs and sophisticated in such niceties. This curious bit of testimony reminds us, indeed, that a certain school of oratory in its beginnings experimented with the rhythms proper to poetry; but the great critic comes round to the very point which we are making, and our point is this: The proper beauty and essence of prose rhythm in all the great stylists is its freedom, its variety, its complexity, its avoidance of the strict forms of metre and repetition of metre; its effects, in short, are secured by a violation of metrical regularity, by an elaborate combination of movement and of numbers which evade scientific analysis, of which the writer himself could give no account, and in which he is guarded solely by a trained and delicate ear. Probably the very same was the practice of a stylist like Plato and of the Greek orators; for this we have the evidence of Aristotle in his 'Rhetoric': "The composition should be neither metrical nor unrhythmical; the former characteristic awakens mistrust, for it seems artificial; at the same time it puts one out, since it makes one look for the like and ask when it will recur. Hence prose should contain rhythm, but not metre, else it will be verse; and this rhythm should not be too exact, but carried only to a certain extent."

It would be hard to better this definition. It fits exactly with all we know of modern artistic prose, and it proves that the ancient sense in this matter was not widely different from ours. It is an anchor to which we may hold fast with a certain satisfaction and confidence. Professor Goodwin has tacitly given an opinion which coincides with this conservative view. In §72 Blass gives an example of how he ventures to restore rhythm whose existence he suspects; and he explains the methods and authorities by which he rescues two *kola* terminating in corresponding trochaic dimeters. This rearrangement Professor Goodwin quietly ignores, confining himself exclusively to questions of meaning and of manuscript authority. How, indeed, could he do otherwise? Our knowledge of rhythm must come chiefly from the MSS. The MSS. depart widely, as the best editors admit, from the true original Demosthenic text; and nothing vanishes more quickly by slight corruptions than the traces of rhythm. Amid this flux and these quicksands the search for a lost rhythm, where not expressly attested by the rhetoricians, seems like hunting for the vanished contours of the breakers on the beach; while the colon, or yardstick of the oratorical period, has the wilful, wavering flexibility of an eel. Yet at the moment we venture this rash opinion we observe that a distinguished French savant (M. Louis Havet) has been systematically applying a similar test to the establishment of a true Ciceronian text of the 'Cato Major de Senectute.'

The value of Professor Goodwin's work is greatly increased by the editor's clear and compact historical sketch of the events from the accession of Philip to the battle of Chæronea, with its constant references to the sources. Among these he has included recent inscriptions shedding light on the period, and especially those lately discovered by the French explorers at Delphi. We seem to come close to the pulse of the time when, in reading the list of delegates to the "Board of Temple-builders," we light upon the first mention of the name Philip of Macedon, and note at the same time the ominous omission of the Phocians. This single contemporary slab attests the results of the peace of Philocrates. In the editor's summary, as well as in the notes, the presumption in all doubtful matters is in favor of Demosthenes and rather against Aeschines. "I have made no attempt," says Professor Goodwin, "to be neutral on the question of the patriotism and the statesmanship of Demosthenes in his policy of uncompromising resistance to Philip. . . . No one can read the final attack of Aeschines and the reply of Demosthenes without feeling that Demosthenes always stands forth as a true patriot and statesman—while Aeschines appears first as a trimmer and later as an intentional, if not corrupt, ally of Philip in his contest with Athens." The layman will sympathize with this bias, and will be glad to have the support of one more distinguished scholar in his traditional enthusiasms. Such partiality is legitimate and unavoidable to one who reads the two speeches side by side. It is created on the whole by the general tone of Demosthenes, by his lofty strain of sentiment, by that air of passionate sincerity which Aeschines never succeeds in assuming, and which is indeed impossible to imitate. The closing argument is so well marshalled that it seems irresistible. It appealed to the noblest sentiments, it became at once a pæan and an apology for the lost causes of all time, it carried and captivated the audience to which it was addressed, and it met with a generous response which was as creditable to their feelings as it was to the orator himself. Their verdict was, in a way, all that he desired and his sufficient vindication.

A casual note, page 344, shows that the editor was critically examining the manuscripts of his author as early as 1854, and reminds us that this edition is the crowning fruit of his mature study. The 12th volume of the Harvard Studies in Classical Philology commemorates "the happy completion of fifty years since he [Professor Goodwin] received his first degree in Arts from Harvard College, and of forty-one years since he became Eliot Professor." During this period he has applied a singular combination of hard-headed, practical sense and of subtle logical acumen—the natural outfit of a good jurist—to disentangling the forms of expression of the most refined vehicle of thought that mankind has ever developed. In our country, at least, he was a pioneer in such investigations, and how much has he done to clear up this particular wilderness! Forty or fifty years ago our schoolboys were furnished with certain misty formulas on the uses of the Greek moods, which shared in their minds the same corner as the theological mysteries of the shorter and longer catechisms. The author of 'The Greek Moods and Tenses' has taken a large share in changing all this. He has brought down this subject of syntax, as Professor Greenough remarks, from the clouds of metaphysics, and has placed it in a familiar region perfectly accessible to any country schoolmistress or schoolboy—not merely to Macaulay's miraculous youngster. "He has made dark things plain and hard things easy," to quote from the Greek Salutation of this memorial volume. There is something so rounded and complete in the quiet triumphs of this long experience that the soul of an Odysseus, shrewdly searching about for modern castaways, might perhaps choose out for himself such a lot, neglecting the shooting-star of the iron-master or the railroad president; and a new Solon might add such a life to his samples of the modest beatitudes. Here, at least, "the jealous divinity" has made amends, if he has not altogether missed his mark. Here is no broken shaft, no occasion to quote the *Sunt lacrymæ rerum*. The master sees his apprentices grown up and some of them, in turn, become masters of their craft. They bring their affectionate tribute to the serene spirit which has never condescended to strive or cry, which has shown a life-long superiority to the vanities and jealousies and petty quarrels that sometimes beset and tempt the scholar—the spirit, in fine, that has simply pursued pure scientific truth, "caring little in comparison for Socrates." In the transparent and dispassionate annotations of this latest work, it is a satisfaction to encounter the mere scientific fact, τὸ εἰλικρινές, uncolored by the ego and freed from the personal equation. It is a delight to think of the high and disinterested example the author has set to the younger generation of scholars, which he helped create and develop; it is a thought to stir the soul that, after all the service he has rendered, at an age when he had earned the right to retire to the ease of "the lean and slippered pantaloon," he has chosen to give the world a mature work, which shows meridian strength and definition. If his sun is declining, it gives no sign. We shall still look for its illumination—ἥλιός ἐστιν ἔτι.

RECENT NOVELS.

The Second Generation. By James Weber Linn. The Macmillan Co.

Widow Wiley and Some Other Old Folk. By Brown Linnet. E. P. Dutton & Co.

My Island. By Eilian Hughes. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.

Eve Triumphant. Translated from the French of Pierre de Coulevain. By Alys Hallard. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Audrey. By Mary Johnston. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Mr. Linn's story concerns itself with a wrong done one man by another, and with the vengeance sought by the victim's son. Far from being of the madding Mafia or Camorra, the son is a young journalist who goes up from Scannell County to Chicago, pursuing at once his own profession and his father's enemy. The latter is a gas magnate, franchise-grabber, and briber of legislators. And thus out of retribution and the career of a newspaper reporter, with loves and friendships in due proportions, is compounded a very creditable little novel, a good example within its limits of what a journalistic novel can do. It speaks with evident acquaintance of life and its works as they flourish in the office of a large daily paper, and if it reflects plainly the limits set on cultivation by the nature of the soil, yet modern slang and manners and the modern passion for the modern rightly find ex-

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pression in a novel of to-day's newspaper and to-day's Chicago. These do not bar out a happy showing of cleanliness and delicate feeling. Dealing perhaps too sympathetically for æsthetic comfort with the unloveliness of life's whirling machinery, it has yet its idyllic touches, and its broad strokes, too, of a grim fatefulness that lends force and fibre. The journalistic abhorrence of what is superfluous marks the style, making the book read realistically and, for the most part, simply. All in all, this small novel tells a good story, and is conspicuous for a restrained and tasteful handling often absent from stories of its latter-day plan and scope.

The Widow Wiley and her compeers from their English lanes, yards, and almshouses are faintly reminiscent of Mary Wilkins's old folk tending their flowers in New England dooryards or chafing in the poor-house. We seem to have met before this succinctness of personal description, this seizing on a crowning incident in the life of a lowly actor and presenting it with stenographic accuracy. But, given the subject, the method is inevitable. Wilkinsism, like Wagnerism, is in the air, and village literature must breathe of it more or less. For variant we have here the Vicar, the Rector, the Squire's lady, whom the English poor have always with them, at once levelling and sophisticating the situation. The incidents are often of a gossamer texture, but are tastefully interwoven, and the portraits stand out distinctly through an enveloping shimmer of humor and sentiment.

'My Island' is a collection of short sketches of Anglesey. They are rich in local color of a kind not often set before the reading world. The Anglesey motive has its own marked character, combining the religiousness, melancholy, superstitiousness, and hospitality that form the Welsh note with the sombre, fantastic quality belonging always and everywhere to the sea island. A breath of the uncanny besides stirs throughout. There is very little about ghosts, but, reading, one seems to hear a rustling at the elbow. Without being powerful, the stories are weird and impressive. Intensity of affection for Anglesey colors them all; but when the day of wheeling over one's pet island has come, one should forswear such mystic description as smears the pages of the opening and closing papers. The bicycle speeds ill through purple patches; the plainest of the stories read the best. The head- and tail-pieces, by Lady Stanley, are attractive—more so than her full-page illustrations.

Yet new international episodes are set forth in M. de Coulevain's novel, well translated into English, with due and not slavish regard to idiom. (To write of brown and light-colored "pupils" of the eye is not a fault of translation, we take it.) We have here the ideas on American women of a French writer who seems rather more than half in sympathy with the Anglo-Saxon temperament, reserving his worst slurs for Latin idiosyncrasies in a novel where pros and cons are fairly evenly distributed. On the whole, however, the Americans have it. The temptations which came to the New York married heroine, when she went to Europe, mainly sprang, it appears, from tendencies handed down by a far-away Latin ancestor. It was by American integrity that she overcame them, although it was that same integrity which justified her to herself in visiting the questionable places of Paris and the gambling-rooms of Monte Carlo, with her young niece, an American of equal integrity, but more frivolity. The American Eve, though she fights down temptation, does not succeed in resisting curiosity. Her strong, pure nature needs frequent toning by travel (leaving husband at home deep in scientific investigation), by Catholicism (taken in a highly Pickwickian sense with ulterior views to the American market); by Buddhism, and the forces of hypnotic suggestion. The right-minded niece is possessed by a similar curiosity. Indeed, in spite of seeing the responsibility laid on Latin heredity, the reader finds that it is curiosity rather than Latinity that leads these ladies into doubtful scenes and positions. They are curious about sights, and even more so about feelings, and court temptations that do not really tempt them, but only pique their inquisitiveness. A question may here suggest itself: Does it prove the whitesouledness of the Eves, or does it make them the more answerable, that they are found inventing their own Satan and apple? But if stories are to be written about this species, we can hardly imagine gentler treatment than M. de Coulevain uses. His familiarity with the purely hotel phases of New York life, and with the Franco-Italian view of American women, their right-mindedness and their dollars, gives his book the quite original merit of moderation. Even his Italian demon, however devilish at times, is not strongly persistent in his pursuit of crime, but becomes a languishing bore, while his American wife finds her greatest tribulation in her more and more unapproachable Roman relations-in-law. We leave all the characters fairly comfortable or dead, and can only hope that Mrs. Ronald remained true to hypnotic grace and stayed henceforth at home. Something there is in the handling of the story that wakens the query, Is M. de Coulevain a nom de plume for (let us say) Mme. de Coulevain?

To the reader not sated with colonial Virginia fiction, 'Audrey' prominently commends itself. It is interesting even to those who feel that they have had a genteel sufficiency of novels of the "God wot" and "Odso" school, in which one hath a pretty wit and another a garment vastly fine, and in which yet another hath cracked a bottle with Mr. Colley Cibber. In whichever way these traits affect the reader, whether as a sop or a red rag, he cannot fail to follow with interest the story of the loves of Marmaduke Haward, Evelyn Byrd, and Audrey. We cannot give Audrey's last name for she did not remember it herself. This was curious, because at the time she lost her family in an Indian massacre she was old enough to be able to say such sentences as this: "Are you a prince? and is the grand gentleman with the long hair and the purple coat the King?" But no matter. A heroine without a surname is just as sweet when she is as sweet as Audrey, and when she is so clever that, in the space of one winter, she learns the whole art of acting and becomes a tragedian whose fame reaches from Virginia to London. This is not the only tinge of drama in the story. The whole form of the book suggests the footlights. We can already see on the stage this hero, cool under all circumstances, except the discovery of his love for Audrey, defying his enemies with a smile and a pinch of snuff, first pinking, then pardoning. The Huguenot-Monacan, wearing a peruke on his head and in his heart the bloodthirstiness of an Indian, is a foregone stage figure. As much so is the Highlander, taken prisoner at Preston and transported to Virginia; his speeches are fully written, and brim over with good Scottish names and sentiments. His little ladylove, the dove-like Quakeress, has a small rôle, but a useful one, affording the principals time to draw breath and change their brocades and marcasite; helpful, too, in this way are the drunken minister, the ex-convict schoolmaster, the theatrical manager, the old witch, and the negro Juba. Col. Esmond's is a non-speaking part, but he may be seen once at the play within the play. The incidents and scenery too take naturally to the boards, and even the grouping is more than indicated. In fact, the dramatization does itself while the reader doesn't wait. It is with a mental thump, that in all this eighteenth-century surrounding one comes upon such a twentieth-century phrase—in the narrative though it be—as this: "the slightly drawling tones which with him spelled irritation"; and again, "the milestones of whose pilgrimage spelled love, ruin, despair, and death." Split infinitives hold up their yawning wounds to be healed, and the wonder grows that a pen so skilfully saturated in the style of its period—an era, surely, of stout verbs, hardy nouns, and peppery interjections—should so wallow in adjectives, using more than would have furnished forth the reigns of Anne and two Georges. The historic background is faithfully and understandingly laid in; a deal of research must have gone to it, but it is modest as becomes a background, and points no student finger at itself. The story, if artificial, is engrossing, as has been said, and insists on being read—a great charm in a story.

ABOUT SHAKSPERE.

What is Shakspere? An Introduction to the Great Plays. By L. A. Sherman. Macmillan. 1902. Pp. xii, 414.

Shakspere as a Dramatic Artist: With an Account of his Reputation at Various Periods. Shaksperean Wars I. By Thomas R. Lounsbury. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1901. (Yale Bicentennial Publications.) Pp. xx, 449.

The English Chronicle Play: A Study in the Popular Historical Literature Environing Shakspere. By F. E. Schelling. The Macmillan Co. 1902. Pp. xi, 310.

There are so many books about Shakspere that a mind of modern habits instinctively seeks for a classification for them. And certain books stand as types of their class. Thus, Sidney Lee's book is characteristically that of the biographer and literary historian; Barrett Wendell's, that of the unconventional scholar-critic, seeking to get the contemporary point of view and to stimulate ideas; Boas's, that of the accomplished manual-maker, safe and conservative; Dowden's, that of the essayist; Brandes's, that of the cosmopolitan littérateur; Snider's, that of the Hegelian and theorist; and Moulton's, that of the popular interpreter. So Professor Sherman's book is nearer the last in type, although it is also a schoolmaster's book, and the book of the leader of a popular literary cult.

It is so good a book in many respects that

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we have to regret that it is not better. Undertaken, as the author tells us, at the solicitation of his publishers, and, perhaps, hurriedly thrown together, it does not seem to be written *con amore*, nor thoroughly ripened and wrought out. Although it is a marked improvement on the author's previous way of writing, it still has too many defects, too many remediable defects. Here and there one remarks too much fondness for and display of big ideas. Perfect simplicity of exposition is not attained. The style is at times difficult and labored. Imposing and cryptic phrases, as well as bold neologisms, forming a sort of dialect, too often recur. Such are "units of approach," "the verities" (almost never the truth, or truths), "persistingly," "comedial" (a form which may take its chances with obsolete comedian, comedic, and comedical), "inaugurate," "embracingly," "potent," and the like; or such a sentence as this: "The Venus [and Adonis] is . . . an interpretation, with considerable Renaissance freedom, of the Goddess consciousness on its human side toward a Galahad ideal of the Greek mind." Most of the passages quoted from Shakspere are nearly throughout mangled by obtrusive and excessive underscoring or italicizing of words and phrases.

On the other hand, as a Shaksperian interpreter, Professor Sherman is sympathetic, subtle, vivid, and humane. He is not writing a book for the scholar, but for the beginner in Shakspere. The scholar, however, may find his account in some of the chapters, and refresh his fagged and worn perceptions from the author's store of fertile and sometimes penetrating suggestions. Only four plays are discussed in detail and at length—"Cymbeline," "The Winter's Tale," "Romeo and Juliet," and "Macbeth." The method adopted is a running commentary presenting the story in the way of a modern novel, with explanation of the action and dialogue, and abundant character comment. The author is conscious of the dangers of this method, and does not recommend carrying the use of it too far. The exposition of "Cymbeline" amounts to a fervent critical eulogy upon the character of Imogen, and furnishes one of the most stimulating critical studies of Shakspere's women that have ever been written. The author is a woman-worshipper, and exalts throughout the *Ewig-Weibliche*. Indeed, in its more original portions, this work is a study of some of Shakspere's women—a study full of suggestiveness and charm. We wish that Professor Sherman had written the whole book frankly from this point of view, and not, as it is on the face of it, as a publisher's book, and as a schoolmaster's introduction to the great plays. For the latter purpose, aside from its stimulating quality, it cannot be recommended. The outline questions presented in the appendix are valuable, but otherwise the general apparatus and material necessary for the beginner are better presented in other books. There is good incidental comment on some of the plays in chapter vii., which deals with the groupings of the plays, but the chapter as a whole is not adapted to the uses of the student. Not that we hold the chronological method to be the only method for the grouping and study of the plays, but that the author's proposed substitute for that method (pp. 287-8), dividing the plays for study into the three groups of "Incident Plays, Personal Plays, and Moral Plays," is fantastic, profitless, and inadequate.

Professor Sherman will not please the æsthetic critics; he writes too insistently as a moralist (he sometimes wrestles hard with his moral categories), and has developed too far his ethical consciousness, for that. He somewhat over-interprets—perhaps generally, and certainly in specific instances, as in the character of Hermione and in those of Romeo and Juliet. He depreciates the Sonnets, and shows personal and peculiar favoritism among the plays. And there are many points of detail in his interpretation, here unmentioned, which are fairly open to question. Nevertheless, there is here material for a noteworthy book of Shaksperian criticism, if properly digested and recast.

Professor Lounsbury has written a good book in a field still unexhausted—good in style and phrasing, and more readable, almost, than the subject permits. It is obviously the result of wide research, and it constitutes a valuable contribution to literary history. It exhibits sane judgments and presents sound conclusions. A vast mass of evidence has been consulted, and has been read with sagacity and discrimination. The material has been thoroughly digested and synthetically presented. Nevertheless, the *advocatus diaboli* must be permitted to enter his exceptions in certain points of manner and mode, if not of essence. In the first place, the title is misleading. For although the evidence adduced results in the end in the demonstration of the fact, nowadays not contested, that Shakspere works throughout as a conscious dramatic artist, the real matter of the book is indicated only in the sub-title. The work is, in effect, a history of Shakspere's reputation down to the nineteenth century. It is to be hoped that Professor Lounsbury will some day extend his investigation to cover the nineteenth century also. In passing, we may note that other chapters of this sort in the history of criticism remain to be written. Professor Lounsbury himself has already traced in outline the history of Chaucer's reputation. The history of the reputations of Spenser (recently outlined for the eighteenth century by Professors Beers and Phelps), of Milton, and of Pope, are still open subjects.

Our second exception in this case is to a point of detail in the author's plan. The book is a university *Festschrift*, and, by virtue both of its subject and of the circumstances of its publication, addresses a special and (at least in the wider sense of the term) learned audience. Why, therefore, the anxious avoidance of the appearance of pedantry by such careful economy of footnote, citation, and reference? The bibliography at the end is a boon, but it is not full enough for the subject, and it does not entirely meet the needs of the case. And why expand to four hundred pages of elaborate exposition that which, with the judicious use of footnotes, could have been sufficiently expressed, for the readers whom Professor Lounsbury will reach, in two hundred pages? The author should have given us either results with less of the process diffused and artistically concealed in the text, or results with more or all of the process laid open for students of the subject in footnotes and appendices. Incidentally, while we agree with the author's conclusions as to Shakspere's reputation in the seventeenth century, we wish he had paid his respects to and answered (at least in a footnote) the views of the editors of 'Shakespeare's Centurie of Prayse' on this theme. Again, the passages in chapters iv. and x. concerned with the testimony to Shakspere's reputation borne by editions of his works and by performances of them are insufficient. More should be made of this evidence, which should be exhibited in greater detail.

We have testified to our admiration for the author's fluent and adequate style. We regret that we find less to admire in his manner. For a monograph in the field of literary history, the treatment is too jaunty, superior, and unsympathetic. The nineteenth-century point of view is incessantly obtruded. The author enters only scoffingly or ironically into the eighteenth-century spirit. There is doubtless much that is artificial, crude, and limited in the best of eighteenth-century criticism, and much that is absurd and ridiculous in the worst of it. But it is not the business of the historian, even of the historian who holds a brief for Shakspere's reputation, perpetually to emphasize and reiterate this fact. It is rather his business to connect the critical modes of thinking with the other modes of thinking of the age. Eighteenth-century criticism, in part at least and implicitly, was the expression of an ethical system or code of conduct whose keynote was the idealization and exaltation of correctness and propriety, in manners as in art. The author enters only very imperfectly into this spirit. He fails to enter because he refuses to abandon even for the moment his own point of view. He prefers to be frankly personal, and to indulge his subjective humor and wit. But animation may be purchased at too great a cost, and wit and scorn without intermission end in becoming irksome. Nevertheless, these are matters not of substance.

Shakspere furnishes the central point in Professor Schelling's excellent monograph. What precedes or follows him in time is preparation or *Nachtrag*. The gist of the study is found in the valuable classified lists of historical plays in the appendix. The rest is a discussion of these groups and of single plays. The work, as a whole, is a good specimen of honest, straightforward, and scholarly investigation. The style is perhaps somewhat timid and dull, but it is free from vagaries, and the book is a safe guide. We wish that the author had given us more of the sort of illuminating criticism which is bestowed in the discussion of "Bonduca" (pp. 203-4), and less of the inconclusive æsthetic and general criticism found in the detailed discussion of many of the other plays. Much is made, but we feel that more could be made, of the literary history of the subject. We had expected, also, to hear more regarding the relations of the historical plays to the epical treatment of history in Warner, Daniel, Drayton, and the rest. But these are personal preferences. What Professor Schelling has chosen to do has been well done.

Commercial Trusts. By J. R. Dos Passos. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1901.

This book, published as one of the "Questions of the Day" series, is a reprint, corrected and revised, of the author's argu-

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ment in December, 1899, before the Industrial Commission. The field of discussion is necessarily somewhat narrowed by the special purpose of the argument, which was, to dissuade the Commission from hasty or sweeping recommendations regarding Federal regulation of the so-called Trusts. But Mr. Dos Passos makes, nevertheless, a pretty thorough examination of his subject, which has certainly lost nothing of interest through the recent course of events.

Our author frankly champions the Trust, though objecting, as a lawyer is apt to do, to the name popularly applied to it. He believes opposition to the present combinations of capital to be futile, and holds that the necessity of legislation to regulate them has not been shown. "Can you," Mr. Dos Passos asks the Commission, "in the face of the extraordinary commercial development of this country, . . . say that you are convinced that there are evils which spring from these industrials?" Our own answer would be, that when the question arises of shaping the law to meet absolutely new and untried conditions in finance or commerce, potential evils must be weighed as carefully as present evils. The absence of the one certainly does not guarantee non-existence of the other. It was the United States Supreme Court itself which said, in applying the Anti-Trust Law of 1890 in the "Trans-Missouri" railway case, that it was not requisite even to submit evidence of intent of "maintaining rates above what was reasonable." So long as the agreement vests in a combination the power of restraining free exercise of competition, the Court declared that its "necessary effect is to restrain trade and commerce." In other words, the question at stake is not alone what a combination is doing or has done, but what, in virtue of its new industrial powers, it may do. The importance of this distinction may be seen from the fact that the whole pending case of the United States against the Northern Securities Company rests upon it. That company has in point of fact performed as yet no overt act whatever.

Mr. Dos Passos takes bold ground in the matter of enforced publicity. He objects *in toto* to such requirements. Since his argument was first submitted, the Industrial Commission itself has unanimously advised that directors of a "Trust" "be required to report to the members thereof its financial condition in reasonable detail, verified by a competent auditor, at least once a year." This would, of course, be equivalent to informing the general public. Since that time, also, the largest industrial combination in this country has voluntarily elected to give out for absolute publicity not merely annual, but monthly statements, in far greater detail than the Commission ventured to advise. Other industrial combinations are falling into line with the United States Steel. These well-known facts throw interesting light on the following remarks of Mr. Dos Passos:

"I take issue with the advocates of publicity, and I deny that it is necessary in the broad sense in which it is demanded. I say that no man who is not interested in a corporation has a right to know anything about it. It is none of his business. . . . If you guard the rights of stockholders and persons who have contractual relations with corporations, . . . then the public has no more business in its private concerns than it has in the private affairs of your household, or your fortune, or your own commercial affairs."

It hardly need be said that we disagree entirely with this contention. Mr. Dos Passos bases his argument largely on the fact that a stockholder, under present laws, has the absolute right to open a corporation's books. But he has to admit that the powers of the courts must frequently be invoked to enforce the right. This procedure is costly; the small shareholder will rarely undertake it, and the results, even if the request is granted, are usually futile. But we do not base our opinion on these facts alone. We contend, as boldly as Mr. Dos Passos submits his proposition, that a company which undertakes to distribute its shares through the medium of stock exchanges; which becomes an important element in the great investment markets; whose financial prosperity or adversity is bound to affect the plans and purposes of the financial public generally—cannot claim the immunity from public inspection to which a small private business, in the hands of a dozen men, might be entitled.

The two past generations have witnessed a more or less continuous struggle between the public and the corporations in this matter, and the public, on the whole, has won. Mr. Dos Passos's theory certainly must apply to a railway, as well as to a combination of sugar-refineries or steel-mills. Yet the railways have surrendered absolutely, and in most cases very willingly, to the demand for complete publicity. State Governments have required and received the quarterly returns of earnings; but, as a matter of fact, the companies have gone further, and placed freely in the public's hands their monthly and weekly traffic showings. What the investment situation would be if these facilities for knowledge were to be withdrawn, we leave to the reader to imagine. We do not think Mr. Dos Passos would, if he could, turn back to this extent the hands of the financial clock. But we are equally convinced that the time will come when publicity of the so-called "industrials," whether freely granted, or, in default of that, required by law, will be such that even the present state of things will seem as anomalous as the popular ignorance of railway finance, thirty or forty years ago, seems to the present investor.

Lives of the Hunted; Containing a True Account of the Doings of Five Quadrupeds and Three Birds, and, in elucidation of the same, over 200 drawings. By Ernest Seton-Thompson. Charles Scribner's Sons.

Mr. Seton-Thompson uses again the methods of former books. He writes thus in his Note to the Reader:

"In my previous books I have tried to emphasize our kinship with the animals by showing that in them we can find the virtues most admired in Man. Lobo stands for Dignity and Love-constancy; Silverspot, for Sagacity; . . . Wahb, for Physical Force; and the Pacing Mustang, for the Love of Liberty. In this volume Majesty, Grace, the Power of Wisdom, the sweet Uses of Adversity, and the two-edged Sorrows of Rebellion are similarly set forth."

Krag, the Kootenay Ram, embodiment of grace and majesty, is the dominating figure of this group, as Lobo, the Timber Wolf, is of 'Wild Animals.' The story of his life is well wrought. Like 'The Trail of the Sandhill Stag,' it is a story of the hunter and the hunted, but here the long trail ends in a tragedy. Krag was born at the foot of the Gunder Peak with Scotty MacDougall, hunter of mountain sheep, close on his mother's track; and his first hour of life was marked by a race for freedom. When his years of education and growth were over, he was a matchless creature.

"As he bounded up the jagged cliffs, barely touching each successive point with his clawed and padded hoofs, floating up like a bird, . . . he was more like a spirit thing, that had no weight and knew no fear of falling, than a great three-hundred-pound Ram with five year-rings on his horns.

"And such horns! The bachelors that owned his guidance had various horns, reflecting each the owner's life and gifts; some rough half-moons, some thick, some thin. But Krag's curled in one great sweep, three-quarters of a circle. . . ."

A battle with his rivals, which gave him possession of a flock of ewes, opened his splendid prime. Then for five years his band had only hunger and beasts of prey and chance riflemen to fear, for Scotty MacDougall was hunting gold in Colorado. Krag became a Wise One among his kind. He taught them to choose safer haunts and shrewder devices for protection; and his descendants were healthier and much wiser than the mountain sheep of former days; therefore they steadily increased in numbers.

At last old Scotty, "the curse of the Yak-in-i-Kak," returned to his shanty, sighted through his glass the great Gunder ram and his bands upon the distant benches, wondered at the unequalled horns, and marked them for his own. They swept now the full circle and even a quarter more, but Krag bore them "as lightly as a lady bears her ear-rings." He sighted Scotty, too, and for months gave him only distant glimpses to pay for hours of stalking. Then a sportsman came to the shanty, and one day, in working over an upland above the cañon of the Yak-in-i-Kak, his dogs drove Krag and a flock of ewes out of cover. A wild chase by the hounds, and the men rounded up the ewes on a point above the narrow river-gorge, five hundred feet deep. On the brink they huddled terror-stricken for an instant, while old Krag, their rear-guard, dashing up, turned to stand at bay. But whistling bullets showed him that defence would be in vain.

"There was one chance left. The granite walls of the Yak-in-i-kak could prove no harder than the human foe. . . . He wheeled to the edge and leaped down—down, not to the bottom, not blindly. Thirty feet downwards, across the dizzy chasm, was a little jut of rock, no bigger than his nose—the only one in sight, all the rest smooth, sheer, or overhanging. But Krag landed fairly, poised just a heart-beat. In a flash his blazing eyes took in another point, his only hope, on the other side, hidden under the overhanging rocks he had leaped from. His supple loins and corded limbs bent, pulsed, and floated him across . . . then back, sometimes to a mere roughness of the rock on which his hoofs, of horn and rubber built, gripped for an instant and took fresh ricochet to another point . . . down, down, down, with modulated impact from point to point, till, with a final drop of twenty feet, he reached a ledge of safety far below.

"And the others, inspired by his example, followed fast—a long cascade of sheep. Had he failed at one point, all must have failed. But now they came down headlong . . . with masterly command of thew and hoof, with marvellous poise and absolute success."

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Years afterwards, however, there came a time when Krag's perfect body and wise and valiant heart could not command his safety. Scotty MacDougall, baffled again and again, took the trail with dogged pertinacity to win the little fortune that Krag's horns would bring. Over the slopes of ten mountain ranges the chase stretched out; five hundred miles, twelve winter weeks, of flight and pursuit. After a little, the man and the ram were never out of each other's sight. Krag could not speed away, for hunger pinched, and he must spend hours daily in seeking scanty herbage under the snow; but he kept out of range, and guarded his life with such watchfulness and patient acceptance of this harassing fear and famine that a generous hunter might have spared him. But Scotty, with the vigor of half a lifetime wasted in the hardships of this trail, lived now only for his purpose; he took Krag's life, and won a prize that cursed him to his death.

The other stories are simpler. "Tito" is the history of a coyote that, through adversity, learned more than coyote wisdom; "The Kangaroo Rat" is a fanciful study; "Johnny Bear" is, in the main, the amusing sketch with which the author has pleased many audiences; "Chink" tells how a timid pup became a hero through loyalty; "A Street Troubadour," a somewhat ragged story, relates the adventures of sparrows in Fifth Avenue and Madison Square; and "The Mother Teal," most simple and charming of all, describes the overland journey of a young brood forced by drought to seek water.

Missions Catholiques Françaises au XIXe Siècle. Avec la collaboration de toutes les Sociétés de Missions. Paris: Armand Colin. 1901. Vols. I., II., III.

Under the editorship of Father J. B. Piolet, S. J., there is being published a really valuable history and description of the French Roman Catholic missions of the present day. The work, which will be completed in six volumes of more than 500 pages each, already covers the nearer East—Turkey in Europe and Asia, Armenia, Persia, Mesopotamia, Syria, and Egypt—Abyssinia, India, Further India, China, Korea, and Japan. The describers and historians of each field are evidently thoroughly competent and well informed; and though their attitudes and (it may be) prejudices may strike us sometimes rather strangely, yet it is for us to use their narratives and spirit to rub down our own angles. The point of view throughout is openly French and Jesuit. Protestant missionaries, especially Anglo-Americans, are emissaries of evil, sowing tares and misleading youth; between the Greek Church and the English occupation of Egypt there is not much to choose; as, in the legend, Marcus Whitman saved Oregon for the Union, so a Jesuit missionary saved Cochin China and Toukin for France. "La France," it is true, becomes at times a little oppressive, and stories of the national aggressiveness of French missionaries become more credible. A different type of missionary, more chauvinistic, more one-ideaed, perhaps also more absolutely devoted, than our Yankees, shows itself to us. And behind it all rises the tremendous fabric of the Roman Curia, the same for centuries, watching empires and kingdoms grow and dwindle. France, the oldest daughter of the Church, the Holy See, the Society of Jesus, begin to ride the imagination as these pages are turned. The same power which treated with Kubla Khan treats with the modern Mantchus in the same city of Pekin.

Especially weighty and instructive is the hundred-page general introduction by M. Étienne Lamy on "L'Apostolat." It is a Jesuit philosophy of the history of Europe. For M. Lamy the history of missions is the history of the Church, and the Church means, or should mean, mankind. Through his whole *essai* the French hold the centre of the stage. As the Franks, they save the Papacy from the Arians, and Europe from the Muslims; as emperors, Charlemagne and his descendants uphold the papal power, and it is only when the temporal rule has slipped to the undutiful Germans that the long conflict of emperors and popes begins. Yet with all this there is great candor towards the growing Protestant schism. It had its excellent reasons, social and political; reform was clearly called for. The Albigenses, and Wiclif, Huss, and Luther had to come like offences into the world. But it was things civil which brought them, just as the civil arm crushed some of them out in blood, of which civil arm M. Lamy highly disapproves. Worst of all, the Dominican traffic in indulgences raised undoubted scandal, the existing monastic orders generally had degenerated, and gave much good ground for cavil. Then the Jesuits appeared, and with them the new life. There is a dangerous passage describing how even this order, "through its obedience" to the papacy, was led away for a time to aid Philip II. of Spain and plot the spread of the faith by force of arms. The Jesuits obeyed Rome unwillingly; now appeal to the secular arm is abandoned, and they are proved to have been right. Thus M. Lamy is a Jesuit first and a Romanist second. Even in passages where he speaks elaborately of the wisdom of Rome, as on the destruction of the Jesuit systems in India and China, there is a ring to his words that hints of satire. Last came the fatal eighteenth century, when France and the Society both went down. For the triumphant record of the nineteenth century M. Lamy refers to the narratives which follow. That he may do with justice and pride. They will shake many of us out of our ignorant provincialism, and lay bare that other side in religion, sociology, and politics which is so hard to reach.

American Duck Shooting. By George Bird Grinnell. Forest and Stream Publishing Co.

This comprehensive treatise is another addition to the literature of wild-fowl shooting, which now assumes such large proportions. While the author does not, with one exception, advance any novel theories in regard to this form of sport, yet under a single cover he brings together a mass of information, and his conclusions may be said to be final. He gives a complete history of the duck family from swans to fish-ducks, each species accompanied by an accurate portrait by Mr. Edwin Sheppard, than whom no one is more competent, technically, to undertake the task. This is followed by an account of the various methods employed in wild-fowl shooting, with a dissertation on duck-guns and the mechanical devices used in the pursuit.

In the last section of his book Mr. Grinnell devotes a chapter to an unexpected peril which menaces some of the members of the duck family. This discovery dates only from 1894; consequently, alarm has not as yet developed into a panic among gunners of shallow-feeding wild fowl, to which it particularly refers. According to Mr. Grinnell, on certain feeding-grounds of swan, geese and ducks, where they are decoyed,

"each season great quantities of shot are fired. . . . Much of it falls on the feeding-grounds of the wild fowl. In feeding, geese, ducks, and swans—whether by accident or design—take into the stomach, with sand, gravel, and food, more or less of this shot. When the shot has passed into the gizzard it is subjected to the same grinding process as grain, grass or other food, and, being softer than the sand, it is ground into minute particles. These fine particles, acted on by the acid of the digestive organs, yield a soluble lead salt, which, being absorbed into the general system, causes death."

Heretofore those who have shot wild fowl have been under the impression that the only form of lead poisoning to which the birds are subject comes from a well-aimed gun, and is usually fatal. If Mr. Grinnell's theory, however, is correct, the most inaccurate shot, by firing pellets of lead over the feeding-grounds of wild fowl, may create as much havoc as does the most skilful gunner.

Elementary Treatise on Navigation and Nautical Astronomy. By Eugene L. Richards. New York: American Book Company. 1901.

With the growing maritime interests of our country, the proportion of college and university students who will desire a knowledge of navigation must also increase. Some of our institutions of learning have long offered courses in this very practical science; others have recently added such a course, and there may now be said to be an American demand for a brief but lucid textbook. The English market has been flooded with such books, none of which seem fully to meet the needs of teachers here; and out of the Yale course, among the first established, has now arisen this clearly written and finely printed text, the outcome of the author's own teaching. Naturally, Professor Richards has drawn largely upon Bowditch's 'Navigator' and Martin's 'Navigation,' and his brief text forms a very competent introduction to either of these standard treatises. The non-mathematical student, however, can scarcely take up the work to advantage, as a knowledge of geometry and trigonometry, both plane and spherical, is prerequisite. All colleges might advantageously offer navigation as a junior or senior elective.

The astronomy of navigation occupies a necessarily large part of Professor Richards's treatment, and he does not at all touch upon the practical handling of vessels at sea, that being rather a separate art by itself, better known as seamanship. His chapters on "Great Circle Sailing" and on "Courses" are perhaps the most satisfactory, and the teacher who approves of abundant numerical examples will enter no complaint of their paucity here. A supplementary chapter on Sumner's method would hardly have extended the book beyond due limits, and an index to such a

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volume, even if small, is still worth the while. A useful section is appended, defining the terms of nautical astronomy concisely; also, a very few serviceable tables.

Touring Alaska and the Yellowstone. By Charles M. Taylor, jr. Philadelphia: George W. Jacobs & Co. 1901. 8vo, pp. 388. Ills.

This book is the consequence of a journey over the Canadian Pacific Railway from Montreal to Puget Sound, thence over the usual Alaskan tourist steamer route, including a side trip to Lake Bennett over the Yukon and White Pass Railway, and eastward again over the Northern Pacific to the Yellowstone Park. It is neatly printed, with a number of "process" illustrations from photographs taken by the author, many of which repeat very familiar scenes common to numerous publications on the region, while a minority, less hackneyed, are more interesting. The text contains not so much a description of the scenes visited, or an account of the details of the journey, as a record of the author's emotions, with streaks of platitudinous moralizing. This, doubtless, has an interest for the author's family and friends, but why it should have been offered to the public in so pretentious a form we cannot imagine. Such a record bears to a real work of travel or recital of experience by a writer of taste very much such a relation as the verses of Martin Farquhar Tupper do to those of a real poet. Yet we remember that Tupper attained a wide popularity, and doubtless for readers who like this sort of thing it is just the kind of thing that they will like. At any rate, it cannot properly be regarded as literature, as a contribution to geographic science, or even as a compilation of useful facts.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bain, R. N. Peter III., Emperor of Russia. E. P. Dutton & Co. $3.50.
Boardman, G. D. Our Risen King's Forty Days. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25.
Clifford, Mrs. W. K. A Long Duel: A Serious Comedy. John Lane. $1.25.
Fargo, Kate M. Songs Not Set to Music. Abbey Press. $1.
Godfrey, Elizabeth. The Winding Road. H. Holt & Co. $1.50.
Harris, H. E. The King of Andorra. Abbey Press. $1.25.
Johnston, J. W. The Riddle of Life. Cincinnati: Jennings & Pye; New York: Eaton & Mains. $1.50.
Kemp, E. L. History of Education. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Lowell, J. R. Democracy. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Meakin, N. M. The Assassins. H. Holt & Co. $1.50.
Nicolls, W. J. Graystone. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.50.
Parker, Arnold. Ping-Pong. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 75 cents.
Rideal, Samuel. Water and its Purification. London: Crosby Lockwood & Son; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Thackeray, W. M. Barry Lyndon. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan.
Wheeler, Jeannette. Josephine Grahame, a Romance, and Other Stories. Abbey Press. $1.50.
Young, D. F. Behind the Grill. Abbey Press. 25 cents.

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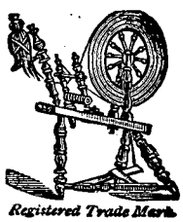

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